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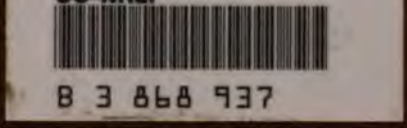
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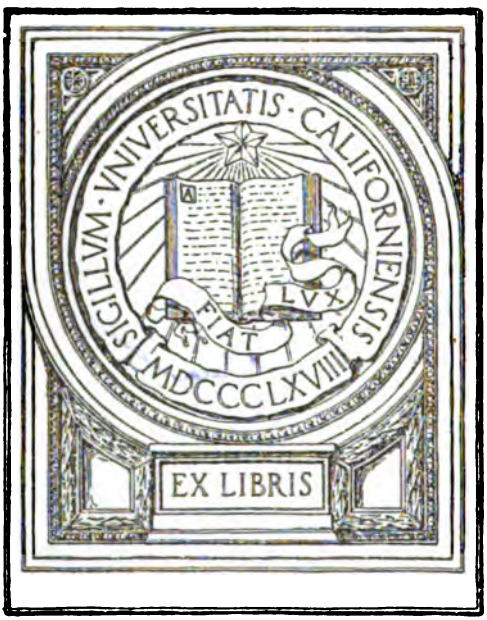
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A MONTHLY JOURNAL

OF TRADE, COMMERCE, COMMERCIAL POLITY, AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES, INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS, AND GENERAL LITERATURE.

"Commerce is King."—Carlyle.

J. D. B. DE BOW

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1847.

NEW ORLEANS CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

New Orleans, May 4th, 1846.

Be it resolved, That this Chamber highly approves of the COMMERCIAL REVIEW, a periodical established in this city by J. D. B. De Bow, Esq., and recommends it to the patronage of the commercial community.

SAMUEL J. PETERS, *President.*

CHARLES BRIGGS, *Secretary.*

SIR: I prefix a copy of a resolution, passed *unanimously* at a meeting of the Chamber of Commerce of this city, last evening.

Respectfully, CHARLES BRIGGS, *Sec.*

To J. D. B. DE BOW, Esq.

CHARLESTON CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

Charleston, October 26th, 1846.

At a meeting of the Chamber, held this evening, the following resolutions were, after a few preparatory remarks, introduced by Col. J. Gadsden, and being seconded, were adopted by the Chamber.

Resolved, That the COMMERCIAL REVIEW, edited in New Orleans by our fellow-citizen, J. D. B. De Bow, Esq., is a work well calculated to exercise a most favorable influence on the Commercial interests of the South and West.

Resolved, That the zeal and talent with which it has been commenced, and the able articles which have appeared in its pages (as foreshadowing on the future the promises of the past), strongly recommend the *Review* to the patronage of the Southern community, and that the Chamber of Commerce of Charleston feel gratified at the opportunity of presenting to the public this testimony in its favor.

On motion of A. Moise, jr., Esq.,

Resolved, That a copy of these resolutions be forwarded to Mr. De Bow, and that they be published in the daily newspapers of the city.

Extract from the minutes.

WILLIAM B. HERIOT, *Secretary.*

SOUTHERN RAILROAD CONVENTION.

Columbia, S. C., May, 1846.

On motion of A. G. Summer, Esq.,

Resolved, That it is with pleasure we learn our late fellow-citizen, J. D. B. De Bow, Esq., now of New Orleans, hereafter intends to devote a large portion of the COMMERCIAL REVIEW to the railroad interest in the South; we therefore heartily recommend that work to the patronage of those persons interested in such enterprises.

UNIV. OF CALIFORNIA

INDEX

TO

VOLS. I. & II. OF THE COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

JANUARY, 1846—JANUARY, 1847.

ARTICLES.

By the Editor.

Position Commercial Review, v. i., 1.
Convention of South and West, v. i., 7.
Miss. and Atlantic Railroad, v. i., 21.
Home and Foreign Grain Market, v. i., 33.
New Orleans and Charleston, v. i., 44.
The Mississippi, v. i., 51.
The Consular System, v. i., 56.
The Warehousing Policy, v. i., 61.
Oregon and California, v. i., 64.
Post Office Reform, v. i., 69.
History of Commerce, v. i., 97.
Morse's Magnetic Telegraph, v. i., 132.
Commercial Polity, v. i., 141.
Cities of the Miss. and Ohio, v. i., 145.
Commerce of the Lakes, v. i., 158.
Agricultural Associations, v. i., 161.
International Rights, Peace and War, v. i., 193.
The Cotton Plant, v. i., 289.
The State of Louisiana, v. i., 380.
Importance of Statistics, v. i., 465.
Indian Corn, v. i., 465.
Marine Insurance, v. ii., 1.
American Legislation, Science, Art, and Agriculture, v. ii., 75,
Coins, Weights, and Measures, v. ii., 283.
Moral Advance of New Orleans, v. ii., 348.
Progress of American Commerce, v. ii., 367.

By Hon. Joel R. Poinsett, of *South Carolina*.

The Mexican War, v. ii., 21.
The Republic of Mexico, v. ii., 37.
Mexico and the Mexicans, v. ii., 164.
Our Army in Mexico, v. ii., 429.

By Robert Greenhow, *State Department, Washington, D. C.*

Expedition St. Denis to Mexico. v. ii., 215.
Abrogation Treaties by War, v. ii., 245.

By Hon. B. F. Porter, of *Alabama*.

Sources of Louisiana Law, v. i., 374.
Elementa Juris Civilis, v. ii., 24.
Utility, Studies, &c., Legal Profession, v. ii., 142.
Pledge or Mortgage, v. ii., 224.
The Civil Law, v. ii., 243.
Slavery, Ancient and Modern, v. ii., 341.
Sealed Instruments, v. ii., 431.

By J. P. Benjamin, *New Orleans*.

Blockade, v. i., 498.
Louisiana Sugar, v. ii., 322.

By E. J. Forstall, *New Orleans*.

Louisiana Sugar, v. i., 53.
Antiquities of Louisiana, v. i., 238.
French Colonial Records, v. i., 357.
French Colonial Records, v. i., 473.
Louisiana, v. i., 519.

Commercial Spirit of the South, by Col. J. Gadsden, *Charleston, S. C.*, v. ii., 119.
The Rice Plant, by R. F. W. Allston, of *South Carolina*, v. i., 320.

18320

The Bill of Exchange and Bill of Lading, Hon. Geo. Eustis, *New Orleans*, v. i., 534.
Admiralty Jurisdiction, by Hon. T. H. McCaleb, v. ii., 179.
Reminiscences of the West, by Maunsel White, Esq., *New Orleans*, v. ii., 177.
Divorce, by Wheelock S. Upton, Esq., v. ii., 155.
Louisiana Legislature, " " 271.
The Cotton Caterpillar, " " 354.
Interest, Exchange, and Stock-Jobbing, by Dr. D. McCauley, v. i., 369.
Humbugiana, " " " 444.
Popular Delusions in Education, " " " 528.
The Cotton Culture, by R. Abbey, Esq., *Yazoo, Miss.*, v. ii., 132.
Agriculture and Manufactures, by John Pope, *Tennessee*, v. i., 227.
Military and Naval Resources South and West, by L. Troost, *Mobile*, v. i., 251.
Mexico, socially and politically, by Gustavus Schmidt, *New Orleans*, v. i., 117.
New Orleans, by Wm. L. Hodge, *New Orleans*, v. ii., 53.
Revival of Roman Baths, by Albert W. Ely, M. D., *N. O.*, v. ii., 228.
Privateering, by A. H., of *New Orleans*, v. i., 515.
History and Doctrine Bills of Exchange, by S. F. Glenn, *New Orleans*, v. i., 153.
Corporations, " " " " 508.
Peruvian Cotton, " " " v. ii., 439.
City of Nashville, by Milton A. Haynes, *Tennessee*, v. i., 502.
Uses Bill of Lading, by P. C. Wright, *New Orleans*, v. ii., 46.
The Tobacco Trade, by a New Orleans Merchant, v. ii., 42.
Cotton Gins, by D. Pratt, *Alabama*, v. ii., 153.
Contract of Marriage under Common and Civil Law, v. ii., 238.
West India Sugar, v. ii., 267.
Indiana, by Carnahan & Porter, *Indianopolis*, v. i., 512.
Remedy for the Cotton Planters, by a Southwestern Planter, v. i., 434.
Commerce and the Fine Arts, G. Cook, *New Orleans*, v. i., 269.
American Tobacco, by J. S. Duke, *New Orleans*, v. ii., 248.
Coffee and the Coffee Trade, " " " 303.
Sedimentary Deposites of the Mississippi, by Prof. J. L. Riddell, *N. O.*, v. ii., 433.
Contract of Sale, by Hon. F. X. Martin & M. Greiner, v. ii., 345.

Atlantic and Miss. Railroad, v. i., 21.
Agriculture South and West, v. i., 73, 227.
Agriculture of Louisiana, v. i., 75.
" Society of Louisiana, v. i., 161.
" Schools, v. i., 456.
" Life, v. ii., 114.
" Classes, v. ii., 116.
Agricultural products U. S., v. ii., 117.
Ancient Maritime Law, v. i., 142.
Alabama Finances, v. i., 187.
" Commerce of, v. ii., 402.
Ambassadors, v. i., 207.
Armistice, v. i., 215.
Army in Mexico, v. ii., 426.
Alliances of States, v. i., 216.
Armory, Western v. i., 267.
Artesian Wells, v. i., 455.
American Railroads, v. i., 460.
American Commerce, 17th century, v. ii., 369.
American Commerce to the Revolution, v. ii., 370.
American Commerce to 1790, v. ii., 374.
" " to 1812, v. ii., 375.
" " to 1846, v. ii., 381.
" legislation, science, art, and agriculture, v. ii., 75.
Average, v. ii., 17.
Abandonment in Insurance, v. ii., 19.
Art and Agriculture, v. ii., 96.
Arts, Useful and Fine, v. ii., 99.
Authors, Protection of, v. ii., 95.
Anastatic Printing, v. ii., 111.
Admiralty Courts, v. ii., 179.

Baltimore, Trade of, v. i., 79; v. ii., 412.
Bruges, " v. i., 6.
Baconian Philosophy, v. i., 132.
Bills of Exchange, &c., v. i., 153, 533; v. ii., 64.
Bills of Lading, v. i., 535; v. ii., 64.
Buffalo, N. Y., v. i., 159.
Baton Rouge Fair, v. i., 162.
Banks of New Orleans, v. i., 174.
Bank Stocks, v. i., 373.
" Notes and Specie, v. ii., 287.
Banks in U. S., v. i., 287.
Boston, Commerce of, v. i., 185, 483; v. ii. 409.
Belligerents, Duties of, v. i., 216.
Blockade, v. i., 226, 498.
British Cotton Trade, v. i., 312.
" Restrictive Policy, v. ii., 371.
" Provinces, their trade, v. ii., 390.
Burr's Plot, v. i., 407.
Barratry, v. ii., 15.
Barter, v. ii., 285.
Balances of Trade, v. ii., 372.
Barley Crop, U. S., v. ii., 117.

Buckwheat Crop, U. S., v. ii., 116.
Bagging, Cotton and Hemp, v. ii., 149.
Beef Inspection, v. ii., 360.
Bathing, History and advantage of, v. ii., 238.
Bullion, v. ii., 290.
Berlin Decrees, v. ii., 379.
Bread Stuffs, v. ii., 385.
Book Table of Editor, v. ii., 443.

Commercial Review, Position, v. i., 1.
Commerce Jurisprudence, v. i., 72, 169.
" of Antiquity, v. i., 97.
" History of, v. i., 98.
" Great Britain, v. i., 105.
" between the States, v. ii., 67.
" American, its progress, v. ii., 357.
Commerce of Europe, v. ii., 400.
Convention South and West, v. i., 7.
Calhoun, Hon. J. C., at Memphis, v. i., 14; Report on Memphis Memorial, v. ii., 23, 416.
Charleston and Georgia Railroad, v. i., 22.
Charleston, Trade of, vi., 45, 79; Chamber of Commerce, v. i., 449; rates, commissions, &c., at, v. i., 449; history of, v. ii., 130, 412; Commerce of, v. ii., 414.
Corn Laws of Great Britain, v. i., 34; v. ii., 376.
Corn Exports U. S., from 1791, v. i., 473.
" trade of New Orleans, v. i., 488.
Crops of Grain in U. S., v. i., 42.
Consular System, v. i., 56.
Consuls, American and Foreign, v. i., 57, 298.
California, advantages, &c., of, v. i., 65.
" history and trade of, v. i., 65.
Cotton, South Carolina report on, v. i., 73; imported into Europe, v. i., 74; consumption in Europe, v. i., 274; culture of, v. i., 230; v. ii., 122; over production, v. i., 231; crops of, v. i., 234; v. ii., 363, 387; consumption of, in U. S., v. i., 235; planter's convention, v. i., 237; trade of Great Britain, v. i., 283.
Cotton Plant, history of, v. i., 291; introduction into Europe, v. i., 297; introduction into U. S., v. i., 299; first exportation U. S., v. i., 302; varieties of, v. i., 303; Sea Island, v. i. 304; crop of world, v. i., 307; mode of planting, v. ii., 133; seed, v. ii., 134, 279; implements of planting, v. ii., 135; bales iron bound, v. ii., 139.
Cities, health of American, v. i., 81.
" " Foreign, v. i., 82.
Chinese Tariff, v. i., 89; cotton, v. i., 285; trade with U. S., v. ii., 395.
Constitution U. S., v. ii., 77.
" Louisiana, v. i., 95.
Carthage, trade of, v. i., 101.
Civilizing effects of Commerce, v. i., 114.
Colonial Law of Spain, v. i., 120.
Cincinnati, Trade, &c., of, v. i., 255, 155.
Chicago, Ill., v. i., 158.
Cleveland, Ohio, v. i., 159.
Chamber of Commerce, N. O., v. i. 171, 173.
Commissions on Produce, N. O., 171.
Cuba, Custom House, v. i., 189.
" commerce of, v. i., 181.
Conflict of Laws, v. i., 204.
Contracts under Law of Nations, v. i.
Confiscation in War, v. i., 211.
Coasting Trade in war, v. i., 218.
Carrying trade in war, v. i., 221.
Contraband, v. i., 224.
Chagres, steamers to, v. i., 264
Carolina, rice exports, v. i., 351; ii., 415.
Copyright laws, v. i., 96.
Canals, northern, v. i., 481.
Corporations, v. i., 511.
Crabgrass, v. ii., 137.
Collisions of vessels, v. ii., 179.
Coal trade, v. ii., 210.
Caterpillar, nature, &c., of, v. ii., 277, 354.
Coins, Weights and Measures, v. ii., 284.
Currency of the world, v. ii., 285.
Coins, ancient and Modern, v. ii., 299.
Coffee and the coffee trade, v. ii., 303;
" West India, v. ii., 305.
" trade of world, v. ii., 311.
" consumed in U. S., v. ii., 315.
Cod-fishery, U. S., v. ii., 376.

Discovery of the Mississippi, v. i., 51.
Debts of the States, v. i., 82.
" to alien enemies, v. i., 212.
Detroit, v. ii., 158.
Dahlonega mint, v. i., 196.
Domicile in war, v. i., 217.
Duelling in Louisiana, v. i., 427.
Distilleries, v. i., 479.
Divorce in Louisiana, v. ii., 155.
Drainage sugar lands, v. ii., 388.
Denmark, our trade with, v. ii., 395.
Delta of the Mississippi, v. ii., 434.

Education in New Orleans, v. i., 83.
" popular errors in, v. ii., 528.
Exploring expedition, v. i., 96.
East India Cotton, v. i., 318.
Egyptian cotton, v. i., 314.
Exchanges, ancient, v. ii., 284.
Enemies' property insured, v. ii., 10.
Enterprise South, v. ii., 127.
Expedition from St. Denis to Mexico, v. ii., 215.
Evaporation sugar pans, v. ii., 341.
Embargo, v. ij., 380.
Editor's note, v. i., 288, 394, 545; ii., 219, 283, 366.

French edition Review, v. ii.

Flour exports and imports England, 100 years, v. i., 35.
Flour prices during 20 years, v. i., 44.
" exports of U. S., since 1796, v. i., 469.
Foreign commerce, v. i., 86.
Foreign products exported from U. S., v. ii., 408, 413.
Flanders, v. i., 106.
Fruit in Louisiana, v. i., 163.
Fine arts of antiquity, v. i., 270.
Farming interests, v. i., 468.
Forest, western, v. i., 252.
" " products of, v. ii., 383.
Free trade, v. ii., 92.
Fur trade, v. ii., 383.
Flax and hemp, v. ii., 118.
France, trade with, v. ii., 392.

Grain market, home and foreign, v. i., 33; product U. S., v. i., 39; countries of Europe, v. i., 40; exports north of Europe, v. i., 40; exports and imports, U. S., v. i., 43.
Gulf of Mexico, its defenses, v. i., 75, 279.
Grecian commerce, v. i., 100.
Genoa and Pisa, v. i., 108.
Georgia Railroad, v. i., 278.
Georgia, commerce of, v. ii., 402.
Gallery of fine arts, v. i., 287.
Great Britain, commerce with, v. i., 389.
Gin stands, v. ii., 139.
Gin, cotton, v. ii, 153.
Geology, western, v. ii., 213.

Health of New Orleans, v. i., 382; ii., 72; southern and western cities, v. i., 81.
Hospitals, marine, in West, v. i., 81.
Hanseatic league, v. i., 104.
Havana, commerce of, v. i., 182.
Humbugiana, v. i., 444.
Hanse towns, trade with, v. ii., 398.
Home market, v. i., 477.
" industry, v. ii., 90.
Hayti, Trade with, v. ii., 399.
Hay crop, U. S., v. ii., 118.
Historical Society, Louisiana, v. i., 364.

International law, v. ii., 201.
Interest calculations, v. i., 370.
Indian corn, v. i., 465.
Indiana, v. i., 514.
Indians of Mexico, ii., 166.
Internal Improvement, v. ii., 81.
Inventions of America, v. ii., 109.
Insurance, v. ii., 4.
Italy, v. ii., 396.

Jews, commerce of, v. i., 98.
Jettison, v. ii., 17.

Law, in Louisiana, v. i., 12; merchant, v. i., 141; of nations, v. i., 196.
Law, John, the financier, v. i., 393.
Louisiana Sugar, v. i., 53; histories of v. i. 387; discovery and settlement, v. i., 390; western company, v. i., 393; French government of, v. i., 394; Spanish government of, v. i., 395; intrigues for, v. i., 399; ceded to U. S., v. i., 402; territorial government, v. i., 406; civil code of 1808 v. i., 408; advances of, v. i., 410; civil code of 1825, v. i., 411; code of practice, v. i., 412; doctrine of codes, v. i., 415; judiciary of, v. i., 417; new constitution. v. i., 420; antiquities of. v. i., 238; colonial records, v. i., 356, 439, 519; law, v. i., 374; historical society, v. ii., 1.
Lake Defenses and commerce, v. i., 80; " navigation, v. i., 81, 100.
Lafayette, city of, v. ii., 423.
Louisville, Ken., v. i., 151.
Lands, public, of U. S., v. i., 188.
Libraries in New Orleans, v. i., 382; ii., 350.
Lombards, v. ii., 6, 360.
Levee at New Orleans, v. i., 56.
Legislation, American, vii., 76.
Lyell, Prof., lecture on Mississippi, v. ii., 439.

Memphis convention, object of, v. i., 8, 146, 382.
Memphis, observations on, v. i. 26.
Mississippi river, v. i., 51.
" state finances, v. i., 187.
Molasses products, v. i., 75.
Marine of Great Britain, v. i., 92.
" France and U. S., v. i., 92.
" Ordinance of, v. i., 144.
" Insurance, v. ii., 1.
Maritime laws, v. i., 141.
Middle ages, trade of, v. i., 102.
" " v. ii., 99.
Monopolies of Queen Elizabeth, v. i., 106.
Manufactures of England, v. i., 108.
" of South and West, v. i., 227.
" Cincinnati, v. i., 257
" St. Louis, v. i., 258.
Mexico, Geography of, v. i., 117.
" early civilization of, v. i., 118.
" government of, v. i., 118.
" clergy of, v. i., 121.
" mines and soil, v. i., 122, v. ii., 230.
" war with, v., ii., 21, 164.
" routes to, v. ii., 173.
" trade with, v. ii. 398.
Magnetic telegraph, v. i., 132.
Michigan city, v. i., 158.
Mechanics of Louisiana, v. i., 161.
Mastodon cotton, v. i., 188, v. ii., 141.
Municipality, No. 2, N. O., v. i., 174.
Maryland, finances of, v. i., 187.
" commerce of, v. ii., 402.

Ministers, foreign, v. i., 207.
Marque and Reprisal, v. i., 214.
Military resources, South and West, v. i., 251.
Military system of Ancients, v. ii., 426.
Mining, v. i., 252.
Mobile bay, v. i., 267.
Mobile, commerce of, v. ii., 419.
Mercantile integrity, v. i., 381.
Merchants' duties, v. ii., 123.
Machinery, influences of, v. ii., 103.
" labor saving, v. ii., 103
Musical instruments, v. ii., 111.
Marriage contract, v. ii., 161, 239.
Mortgage, v. ii., 201.
Money, history of, v. ii., 289.
" material of, v. ii., 285.
" theory of, v. ii., 287.
Mint, British and American, v. ii., 293.
Massachusetts, commerce, v. ii., 402.
Milan decrees, v. ii., 379.
Moral advance, N. Orleans, v. ii., 343.

Neutrality of Com. Review, v. i., 6.
Neutral nations, v. i., 219.
" property with enemy, v. i., 220.
Nashville railroad, v. i., 24.
" history and trade of, v. i., 502.
New Orleans and Charleston v. i., 44.
New Orleans, history of, v. i., 46; population of, v. i., 47; tonnage of, v. i., 53; markets, monthly, v. i., 93, 190, 286; commercial statistics of, v. ii., 420, 424; progress and statistics of, v. ii., 421.
New Mexico, trade with, v. i., 290.
New York, shipping of, v. i., 186. ww
" its finances, v. i., 187.
" State commerce, v. ii., 402.
" City commerce, v. ii., 411.
Natchez, Miss., history, v. i., 146.
Naval Resources, South and West, v. i., 251.
Norway, trade with, v. ii., 395.
Netherlands, trade with, v. ii., 395.

Oregon, v. i., 66.
Ohio river, commerce of, v. i., 78.
" " hydrography of, v. i., 78.
Oswego, N. Y., v. i., 159..
Office Commercial Review, v. i., 596.
Oats, crop, U. S., v. ii., 117.

Peruvian Cotton, v. ii., 439.
Post office reform, v. i., 69.
" of G. Britain, v. i., 69.
" of U. States, v. i., 71.
Penny Post System, v. i., 69.
Public works on G. of Mexico, v. i., 76.
Public Schools, N. Orleans, v. i., 83.
Population G. Britain, France, &c., v. i., 92, 151, 255.
Pittsburgh, trade of, &c., v. i., 78.
Portland, Maine, v. i., 484.
Portsmouth, N. H., v. i., 484.
Providence, R. I., v. i., 184.
Pensacola, Florida, v. i., 264.
Phœnician trade, v. i., 100.
Political influences of Commerce, v. i., 112.
Premiums, agricultural, v. i., 167.
Pilotage, Charleston Bar, v. i., 175.
Pilot system of N. Orleans, v. ii., 207.
Peace and war, v. i., 193.
Privateering, v. i., 213, 515.
Passports, v. i., 214.
Policy of Insurance, v. ii., 5.
Planting interests, v. i., 233.
Prices Sugar and Molasses, v. i., 379.
" influences by supplies, v. i., 468.
Pork, product of West, v. i., 476.
" inspection of, v. ii., 360.
Parties, progress of, v. ii., 78.
" spirit of, v. ii., 79.
Profession, legal, v. ii., 142.
Philosopher's stone, v. ii., 293.
Patent systems, v. ii., 105.
" right laws, v. ii., 107.
Prize Essays Commercial Review, v. ii., 215.
Pledge, v. ii., 224.
Public Baths, v. ii., 231.
Precious Metals, v. ii, 289.
Potato Crop, v. ii., 118.
Penitentiary of Louisiana, v. i., 425.
Position and prospects N. Orleans, v. ii., 53.
Portugal, trade with, v. ii., 393.
Pennsylvania, commerce of, v. ii., 402.
Philadelphia, " " v. ii., 411.

Quarantine laws, v. i., 82.
Queries to cotton planters, v. i., 453.

Railroad, Mississippi and Atlantic, v. i. 21; receipts, Georgia, v. i., 23; to Pacific Ocean, v. i., 23; Safety of, v. i. 83; in the West, v. i., 176; Mexican Gulf, v. i., 84; Carolina, v. i., 384; to Oregon, v. i., 85; Central, v. i., 175 in Prussia, v. i., 189; to California, v i., 279, 280; American and foreign, v i., 285.
Roman commerce, v. i., 101.
Rights of peace, v. i., [illegible].
Reciprocity treaties, v. ii., 382.
Rye crop of U. S., v. ii., 117.
Rotation of crops, v. ii., 137.
Reminiscences of West, v. ii., 177.
Rio Grande, valley of, v. ii., 363.
Remedy for cotton planters, v. i., 434.
Rice, v. i., 320; cultivation in East, v i., 320; varieties and culture of, v. i. 323, 326; Carolina varieties, v. i., 326 crop of the U. S., v. i., 331; mode o culture, v. i., 334; mills, v. i., 343; o Louisiana, v. i., 356.
Russia, trade with, v. ii., 394.

ichmond, commerce of, v. ii., 412.

igar, manufacture of, v. i., 53; ii., 392; crops of Louisiana, v. i., 54, 380; ii., 392; interests, v. ii., 212; crop of world, v. ii., 214; West India, v. ii., 267.
igar region, extension of, v. ii., 422.
outhern railroad enterprises, v. i., 22.
" agriculture, v. i., 229.
outh and West, productions of, v. i., 254.
" its duties, v. ii., 129.
" enterprise of, v. ii., 407.
outh Carolina manufactures, v. i., 276.
" " commerce of, v. ii., 402.
" American cotton, v. i., 317.
" " trade, v. ii., 399.
" spirit of, v. ii., 119.
. Louis, commerce, &c. of, v. i., 79, 255, 147; steamers of, v. i., 277; trade of, v. ii., 411.
ates of the Union, trade of, v. i., 179; ii., 402; imports and exports since 1791, v. ii., 40.
earch, right of, v. ii., 206.
avannah, Geo., v. i., 276.
avannah, commerce of, v. ii., 418
hip canal on lakes, v. i., 80.
andusky, v. i., 158.
ea Island cotton, v. i., 304.
ock Jobbing, v. i., 301.
lk product, U. S. and Louisiana, v. i., 381; ii., 118, 218.
ave law of Louisiana, v. i., 410.
avery, ancient and modern, v. ii., 351.
atistical information, v. i., 465.
anding armies of Europe, v. ii., 427.
cience and art compared, v. ii., 98.
" of ancients, v. ii., 99.
" progress of, v. ii., 76.
alvage, v. ii, 17.
nuggling, v. ii., 262.
ub-Treasury, v. ii., 202.
eas, products of, v. ii., 383.
ealed Instruments, history and law of, v. ii., 431.
ilver and gold, v. ii., 290.
ale, contract of, v. ii., 345.
pain, trade with, v. ii., 393.
weden, trade with, v. ii., 396.

ennessee, her resources, v. i., 25.
exas emigration, &c., v. i., 77.
yre and Sidon, v. i., 100.

Trade regulation with China, v. i., 88.
Telegraph, Morse's, v. i., 137.
" Foreign, v. i., 139.
" routes in U. S., v. i., 138.
Tea, American, v. i., 185.
Treasury, U. S., v. i., 189.
Tariff of Cuba, v. i., 180.
Tariffs of America, v. ii., 91, 102.
" " U. S., history of, v. ii., 405.
Treaties, v. i., 215; ii., 245.
" during war, v. ii., 245.
Taxation, doctrine of, v. ii., 93, 261.
Tides of the Mississippi, v. ii., 181.
Tobacco trade. v. ii., 42, 249; inspection in Louisiana, v. ii., 43, 355; exports from U. S., v. ii., 47; culture in West, v. ii., 149; monopolies, v. ii., 256.

United States commerce and navigation, v. i., 177; vessels built in 20 yrs., v. i., 183; imports and exports, 1700–1776, v. ii., 373; commerce, 1790–1846, v. ii., 401; imports and exports 1845, v. i., 281; cotton crop, v. i., 309; agricultural exports, v. ii., 384; exports domestic manufacture, v. ii., 388.
University of Louisiana, v. i., 430.

Venice, v. i., 103.
Vicksburg, history of, v. i., 146.
Vineyard sound, v. i., 184.
Virginia, commerce of, v. ii., 402.
Valley of Mississippi, v. ii., 59.
Vacuum pans, v. ii., 339.

Wheat export of England 100 years, v. i., 35.
Warehousing policy, v. i., 61.
" law, 1846, v. ii., 203.
" system, v. ii., 408.
War, its rights and duties, v. i., 209.
" declaration of, v. i., 210.
Warranties of insurance, v. ii., 14.
Wheeling, Virginia, v. i., 255.
Well-water in Louisiana, v. i., 455.
West, navigation of, v. ii., 88.
Wisconsin, its minerals, v. ii., 361.
Whale fisheries, v. ii., 379.

Yellow fever in N. O., v. ii., 73.
" " in Mexico, v. ii., 173.
" " in America, v. ii., 422.

Zollverein trade, &c., v. ii., 257, 297.

DE BOW'S COMMERCIAL REVIEW;

A MONTHLY JOURNAL OF TRADE, AGRICULTURE, COMMERC
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PROVEMENTS, &c.

Published Monthly, in the City of New Orleans.

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not be the less mindful of the great interests of TRADE, COMMERCE AND AG
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PROSPECTUS TO THE THIRD AND FOURTH VOLUME

THIS work has been regularly published nearly two years. Its success
been signal throughout the whole SOUTHERN AND WESTERN COUNTRY, and
subscription list steadily and rapidly increased there and in other sections of
Union. In this brief period it has gained a larger circulation than any ot
Southern work, and the strongest influence. Complimentary letters and noti
have been received from every source, even the very highest, as could be sho
did space permit. The COMMERCIAL REVIEW has advocated and upheld the

Commerce and Agriculture of the Southern and Western States,

and exhibited from time to time their complete

STATISTICS,

in such a manner as could not but have secured the best results. The papers wh
have appeared upon SUGAR and upon COTTON, upon TOBACCO and RICE, and MA
FACTURES, upon THE PROGRESS OF OUR COMMERCIAL RELATIONS with all natio
and upon MEXICO, may be stated as examples. Indeed, this has been admit
from many sources. Although devoted in its aims to the development and ex
bition of the

Resources of the South and West,

the Commercial Review neglects no view of

American and European Industry and Enterprise,

in every department, and must be of equal value to AMERICAN CITIZENS where
they are found. Is there a section of the union, too, or an interest which has
concern with the progress and resources of the GREAT WEST, of which
Commercial Review is the faithful exponent?

TESTIMONIALS.

If the Index of contents now published were not sufficient evidence of what the work has been and is, we might remark that it has been highly commended to us, among others, by the Hon. Henry Clay, Hon. J. C. Calhoun, Hon. J. Q. Adams, Hon. Levi Woodbury, Hon. E. Burke, Patent office, Hon. Abbot Lawrence, Hon. Joel R. Poinsett, the most important chambers of Commerce, etc., etc. A host of letters might be easily published, and notices from Journals of highest character; as the *Union* and *National Intelligencer*, *Courier and Enquirer*, *Charleston Courier*, *Mercury*, *Patriot*, and *News*, *New York Courier and Enquirer*; all the New Orleans papers and others throughout the country—*Skinner's Farmers' Library*, *Hunt's Merchants' Magazine*, *Simmond's London Colonial Review*, etc., etc.

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At the opening of a FOURTH VOLUME, it is well to state that there are many great and important improvements now in course of preparation, which must add greatly to the interest and value of the Review, some of which this number will evidence.

1. Regular monthly *Summaries of American Commerce* will be prepared by one of the ablest writers upon such subjects in the Union.
2. A similar *European Correspondence* is secured, and publications will be made.
3. No pains has been spared to obtain the pens of the ablest *American writers* for the work.
4. A series of papers will be published beginning with the present number, and extending through one or two years, from the pen of the editor and other collaborators upon

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II. COTTON AND COTTON MANUFACTURES.
III. STATISTICS AND RESOURCES OF THE GREAT WEST.

A regular series will also be published upon *Silk*, *Wool*, *Hemp*, and similar subjects of agriculture and manufactures. The first of the series appearing in our November or December Number upon SILK, being an elaborate and valuable paper, full even to details, from an able and practical pen, aided by all the statistics of the Patent office, and illustrated with numerous wood-cuts. This Treatise will be invaluable.

5. A Department of American MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY will be embraced, of leading characters taken from the MERCHANT CLASSES in every section of the Union, embellished with STEEL ENGRAVINGS, a feature to be first introduced by us in this country. These, in addition to the engravings we have already published, and *wood-cuts*, greatly increase the expense of publication. *Maps*, etc., will, if possible, be introduced.
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We have kept our promises in the past, as the Commercial Review will evince, and shall keep them in future.

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We are happy to announce that a *reprint* of these in *two handsome Volumes* wi be issued about the 1st of November from the press. The style of execution an finish is most superior. As the numbers for 1846 have great value and wer much sought, and as we have not been able to furnish them for many months bac to our orders, this *re-publication* must pass through a very large edition. W have not, however, ventured to print many at first, but only to supply our order &c. Those persons who would complete their sets, had better do so at once and all of our subscribers, new as well as the old, will be furnished the Volume for 1846, *bound in very superior style*, for the subscription price remitted us, *witho any extra charge for binding*. We are ready to supply from the beginning, an offer these accommodations that all may have the work complete. This arrang ment to extend to no other Volume.

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The prospect of American Hemp; the Copper and Lead resources of the North west; the Gold Mines of the South; United States Mint and Branches; th Value, Character and Tests of Soil in the South and West; The Pilot Syste of New York and New Orleans; Changes in the Mississippi river; its banks an mouth; Summer Seats on the Gulf and Texas coasts; Internal Improvemen Schemes at the South and West; Texas as a State; The Santa Fe and Mexica Trade; Our position with Mexico; New Orleans in the Past and in the Future Historical Sketches of the States; Sketches of Southern and Western Cities Manufactures of the South and West; Sketches of the Biography of Emine Practical Citizens; Essays on Commercial Law, Commercial Decisions, etc. Lafitte; Coins; The Polar Seas; Weights and Measures; American Treaties Canals; American Railroads; Steam Navigation; The Mines; Banks and Bank ing; Western Rivers; Southern Manufactures; Trade in Breadstuffs; Com merce of Cuba; Light-house System; Coast Survey; Iron and Coal of Penn sylvania; Florida; Resources of North Carolina; Virginia; Trade, &c., Balti more, New York, Boston; Lumber Trade of Maine, &c.; British Colonia Trade; Trade of European Powers; American Fisheries; The Slave Question The Ocean; The Printing Art; Naval Stores; Provisions; Production Arden Spirits; The Book and Paper Business.

Letters in relation to the Review will be directed, post-paid, to the edito J. D. B. De Bow, or to the publisher,

B. F. DE BOW,
Office of Commercial Review, New Orleans.

☞ It is desirable that all past accounts shall be early closed: agents wi please exert themselves. Specimens of the Review for examination will be sen to *responsible* persons who apply.

ADVERTISEMENTS inserted on stitched leaves and cards on accommodating term

We will be pardoned for extracting from the mass of notices in our possession wo or three which happen at this instant to be at hand. It is better, however, hat the work should speak for itself.

From Hunt's Merchants' Magazine.

"De Bow's Commercial Review for May contains much valuable matter of Commercial and Miscellaneous character. It has reached its *seventeenth* Num-er, which is, in our opinion, the best of the series. Success to our name-sake.

"The No. for June and July opens with an elaborate and highly interesting paper, n the 'Romance of Louisiana History,' from the pen of the Hon. Charles Gayarre, ecretary of that State. There are also articles of value to the agricultural in-erests of the South, on the introduction of new products, as the vine, the cork, amphor, flax, etc.; and the cotton-worm, in its history, character, visitations, etc., orms the subject of another article. Dr. Hort, of New Orleans, has furnished a cientific analysis of Texas sugar soils. But the paper which has interested us he most, is that entitled 'Commerce and Agriculture Subjects of University nstruction,' from the pen of the accomplished editor of the Review, in which he ubmits the plan of a Professorship of Public Economy, Commerce, and Statistics or our Colleges and Universities. The plan has our hearty approval, and will, e trust, ere long be adopted by some of our higher institutions. The article on Charleston and its Resources,' we shall endeavor to find room for in a future umber of this Magazine."

From the New Orleans Commercial Times.

"De Bow's Commercial Review.—This able exponent of the position, exigen-es, prospects, &c., of the trade and commerce, the agriculture and manufactures f the South and West, comes to us in its present issue in a double form, contain-ng the June and July numbers under one cover. There are fifteen original arti-es, each of which has its particular merit. They treat of subjects embracing most every interest connected with the development of Southern and Western rosperity, and we may add, indeed, in reference to the first article, of Southern nd Western refinement. Article No. 5 is eminently deserving notice, as the atter brought forward in it is of a character that imperatively addresses itself to ur most prominent interest. Shall not Commerce have a chair in the newly tablished University of Louisiana—Commerce, the all-in-all of our wealth? Ve concur with the editor, that without a Professorship of 'Statistics'—a ience embracing such a variety of subjects, all united under the head of Indus-y, in its various applications, remote and near—the University will be compara-vely a lifeless, inert mass, while 'STATISTICS' will strip it of its monkish allness and passiveness, and invest it by its practical quality, with that vitality hich shall be, and is, characteristic of our age and nation. The whole publi-ation, in its several departments, evinces talent and extraordinary industry."

From the Concordia Intelligencer, of Louisiana.

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"The Review improves with every succeeding number. It has been greatly beau-ified in typographical execution and otherwise lately, and is now one of the most andsome monthly periodicals in the world, as well as decidedly the most practical, borious and useful publication of the kind with which we are acquainted."

☞ *A splendid steel engraving of Stephen Girard accompanies e September No.—the first of a series of "Eminent Merchants."*

H. LONG & BROTHER,
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UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

THE COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

Volume I. JANUARY, 1846. No. 1

Art. I.—THE COMMERCIAL REVIEW;

ITS POSITION IN RELATION TO SOUTHERN AND WESTERN PERIODICAL LITERATURE, AND SOUTHERN AND WESTERN INTERESTS.

The design and object of an enterprise, new in its character, which is to be dependent upon public sympathy for support, ought to be distinctly stated in the outset, and clearly understood.

If purposes of an elevated nature are to be achieved—the occupation of ground rich in resources and hitherto untilled—the diffusion of instruction and light upon interests most practical and important—the advocacy of widest sections, and everything that contributes to their moral and physical advance—if the aims be high as these, and guarantees be furnished for their attainment, then we conceive, beyond all question, the enterprise places itself at once upon a basis of enduring strength, and commands the approval and support of every citizen wishing well to his country.

But if, on the other hand, the scale be reversed, and that which is proposed be in reality valueless, even when accomplished—if the field to be occupied is already ably and adequately commanded, or the would-be occupiers are meagre in resources, of inefficient action and circumscribed views—in such a case, we imagine, no prophetic vision can be required to pierce into destiny, and determine that declension and decay which are following inevitably on—rapid—certain—unlamented. There is no power long to deceive mankind in matters of this nature. A keen sensitiveness happily prevails in the world, whose benign influence it is to rescue society and literature from the excrescences which would otherwise grow up upon them—a sensitiveness which chastises pretension with neglect.

The Journal which is now ushered upon the world, and subjected to the ordeal delineated, will, of course, stand or fall as it approximates to the one extreme or the other of the contrast which has been drawn. That the Editor will have a powerful incentive, demanding his whole resources and energy to reach the happier and better fortune involved, will be conceded without argument: and, indeed, if a long and careful study of the history, the wants and resources of the Southern and Western States—if a practical as well as theoretical acquain-

nce with Commercial movements, internal and foreign—if an acquaintance with the principles of international and local law, acquired in the studies and duties of a profession, and an editorial experience in the conduction of one of the first literary works in the Union, superadded to that which is equal to all the rest, and, perhaps, above them all, industry, application, and devotion to the interests of the sections advocated, can be of any avail and at all an earnest of the future, that happier and better fortune will be won.

To those who have any experience in the conduction of Southern or Western periodical literature, the difficulties and embarrassments under which it has always been doomed to struggle are matters of familiar knowledge. In the higher departments little has yet been accomplished among us. Able monthlies and quarterlies, devoted *exclusively* to literature, in its lighter walks of fancy, or its statelier tread of philosophy, have run their brief career, and expired almost in the very throes which gave them birth. We have seen some of them live on, however, live in spite of the strewn wrecks around, but it has been a galvanized life—action without the heart-work and the blood—without the power from within of supplying the elements of its continuance. There is not one of these, and we speak it with knowledge—not one remunerating its proprietors now in any degree proportionate with their labors. The remuneration, if it come at all, must come in the doubtful future, or it must come, as the starved devotee to literature and science too frequently greets it, in the simple consciousness of extending the influence and the empire of letters.

We shall not pause here to inquire into the causes of what is so lamentable in itself. We have seen speculations to this effect, and heard various explications attempted. To us, at present, the simple fact is sufficient, and the corollary which is deducible from it. Disguise the painful truth as we may, it is still stubbornly there, that the South and West have not yet, whatever the reasons, attained to that happy pre-eminence when a reading population, heartily appreciating literature and sympathizing with it for itself, and for itself alone, can be afforded, large enough to give character and permanency to literary movements in their midst. The confession is wrung from us with regret. If we take the South, from the Old Dominion as it stretches itself to the gulf, there is a population scattered and difficult to be reached by the influences of letters. If we take the West, sweeping away through the valley of the Mississippi, there are States forming and developing, there are men struggling with the wilderness, subduing soil into cultivation, opening trade and creating for it avenues. The first efforts of these men have their aim and end in physical good. The physical want precedes, in the order of time, the intellectual. Ploughshares come before philosophy. The *utile* and then the *dulce*, the body first and the intellect which is beyond it. No demonstrations of Malthus are needed here.

With convictions of this kind, there would be, in our case, something of the nature of fatuity were we to enter the literary field with a new enterprise, to be sustained amid all its hazards, and to rest *solely* for its success upon the votaries which literature may chance to have. We should rather marvel at such temerity in another than be inclined to imitate it ourself. Our individual resources, though they might be

sustained by ever so large an amount of public spirit, would unquestionably be exhausted in the large outlays and the meagre revenues which our literary friends now and then dolefully count up. We should yield ourself in the struggle, to place others on their feet, and prejudice a good cause by a premature advocacy, and a forced abandonment of it.

What, then, can be done, and why are we moving at all? By what process have we been lulled into the pleasing assurance that our present connection with the publishing world will be a successful, an enduring, and an influential one? We answer, in brief, that we address ourselves to the times as they are, and to the circumstances as they exist. The class of wants which comes within our cognizance, and which we volunteer to supply, is the class which our region of country is now feeling, must feel, and continue to feel, before any other class can be thought of, or even exist. They are the practical wants of every-day life, developed in the first movements of private or public enterprise, in the business relations of man with his fellow-man. Falling in with the spirit of the age and the country, without dropping behind on the one hand, or outstripping it on the other, we seize upon the practical field of labor. We hold up the "map of busy life," with its broad, deep lines of struggles, and toils, and hazards, in conquering wildernesses into fields, in rearing up States out of adventurous woodsmen, in advancing individual fortune, in connecting section with section, and region with region, by ties of reciprocal interest and fraternal affection, and in marching on with the whole to those high destinies which, as a people, it seems to be the will of God we are to reach.

We entitle our work the COMMERCIAL REVIEW, not that the appellation entirely satisfies us, or that it comes up to an adequate expression of its nature and objects; but that, in the defects of our language, we could not, without a circumlocution, find another phrase which would answer as well. Had we said Practical Review, there would have been, to say the least of it, some inelegance, and no little ambiguity. We establish, to be sure, a Commercial work, as much so as Hunt's is one, with its remarkable merits, its high and well-earned influence; but it is Commercial only, in the widest and most liberal construction of the term. There is no end to the diversities and ramifications of commercial action. You cannot touch a practical interest, in fact, whatever its nature, which does not, to a greater or a less extent, trench upon commerce, affiliate itself with, and affect it. Touch agriculture, touch the arts, the professions, fortifications, defenses, transportations, legislation of a country, and the chances are a thousand to one you touch commerce somewhere. With this understanding, our Review is not inappropriately named; but, in the ordinary sense of the term, we are more than commercial. Not to dwell, however, too long upon mere technicalities, we shall hastily reconnoitre the field of action before us, and furnish what may be considered a fair index of our future labors.

And first, our position is one which has not yet been taken by a single periodical in the Southern or Western States, and by but one in the whole country. It is evident that a nation vast as ours, and of such resources, cannot be adequately represented by a solitary work

upon this principle. A wide sphere of action may yet be discovered, and the co-labors, and not otherwise than generous rivalries, which will hereafter be called into action between two works, the one established at the heart of the commerce of the North and the East—New York, and the other at the great emporium of the South and West—New Orleans, will exert an influence in the highest degree favorable to the interests of the whole country. The exalted position of our contemporary has been long understood, and our aspirations are not lower than his, whether or not we ever reach them. We differ somewhat, however, in the departments undertaken. For us it shall be to adhere to the West, the South, and the South-west; to take the highest views on their great, ever-arising, ever-augmenting interests, to advocate their true and best policy, to defend their rights and develop their resources, to collect, combine, and digest in a permanent form for reference, their important statistics. These shall be the characteristics of our enterprise.

As a *Journal of Trade*, each and all of the commodities it embraces will come under repeated examination. The history of these commodities, their production, consumption, valuation, transportation, and the principles which govern their interchange and distribution.

As a *Journal of Commerce*—Commerce in its various and multiform relations will be analyzed; commerce in its origin; in its history and statistics; commerce in its exchange of the products of distant climes and nations, and its civilizing, enlightening and peace-perpetuating influences upon the world.

As a Journal of *Commercial Polity*—the field is wide and in the highest degree important. The regulations of trade, inter-state and inter-national; treaties, foreign and domestic; tariffs, excises and posts; maritime regulations; mercantile systems, codes, laws, and decisions, ancient and modern; banking, insurance, exchange, partnership, factorage, guarantee, brokerage, bankruptcy, wreck, salvage, freights, privateering, marque and reprisal, piracy, quarantine and custom-house regulations, etc.

As a *Journal of Agriculture*—the soil and its capacities for improved growth and cultivation, the variety and tests of soils, their relative value and productiveness, their yield in the most and least favorable circumstances, their best sites and locations.

As a *Journal of Manufactures*—the gradual advancement of this branch of industry among us shall be noted; the capacities of the south and west for their larger introduction and extension, and such general information in relation to their establishment as may be embraced within the limits of the work.

As a *Journal of Internal Improvement*—Canals, turnpikes, and railroads, steamboats, and river navigation, new and projected routes and enterprises, with their respective advantages, facilities, economy, productiveness, mail conveyances, etc., will be embraced.

As a *Literary Work*—the least pretending, but not unimportant department. Literature cannot be entirely neglected even in the workshop or in the press of stirring enterprise. The biographical sketches of distinguished, practical, and business men, of public benefactors, and high-reaching directors and controllers of a struggling age, will stimulate similar efforts in others, and the developments in

the book-trade will be a fair exposition of the character which literature will assume when it is pressing up amid a toiling and eminently practical people.

Thus, then, for the humble tradesman, or the extensive merchant —for the commercial jurist—the farmer and the planter—for the manufacturer, or him desirous of an extensive acquaintance with the operations of his country; for all of these, and for the mere general reader, there will be matter afforded which will be deeply interesting and instructive.

With party movements and manœuvering and party tactics we have not the most remote connection. We have no cause to chronicle these, nor even to animadvert upon them in any of their intricate and diversified connections. An active *neutrality* is the best position, where all parties are to be benefited, and there is likely to occur little strong enough to move us from it. Whatever may be our individual sentiments upon these questions, and whatever the doctrines we may be called upon to support on other occasions, none of these shall be allowed to give a party character to the work. In discussing questions which incidentally affect and relate to present legislation, a thing that cannot be avoided entirely, there shall be a perfect freedom allowed. If by chance publication should be given to sentiments which may not harmonize with those of particular interests and classes of men, there shall always operate a principle with us to correct the evil. Where truth is the subject, and men are in search of it, fair, honest, and calm discussions are powerful means for its attainment. Let both sides speak then, the better to understand each other and to arrive at legitimate and incontrovertible conclusions.

We solicit, then, generally from all who have made the practical concerns of the country or any department of them their study, who are furnished with facts and statistics whose dissemination is desirable, who sympathize with the motives which actuate us in our journal, and who would aid in carrying them into execution—we solicit an expression of views at any and at all times, and cheerfully pledge our pages to the reception and exposition of what may be furnished us. To those who have already volunteered their services in this particular, we make the acknowledgments now.

There are large duties incumbent upon the editorial department of the work, and heavy publishing expenses. These can only be recompensed and sustained in an extended circulation. In the best case the prospects must be small. For a long probation, little more will be done, perhaps, than refunding the outlays for printing and publication, if so much. There may be motives enough to continue the work, even without its pecuniary profits, but few can afford to live upon the mere consciousness of benefiting their countrymen. We ask, then, for circulation, and solicit additions to our subscription and advertising lists. We beg our friends, and all to whom we send this number, to act as its friendly agents.

With these remarks, the professions with which we thought it necessary to preface the publication are concluded. As these subjects will not be reverted to again, a reference to them in the opening, though, perhaps, too lengthened a one, will not be considered altogether inappropriate.

Art. II.—CONVENTION OF SOUTHERN AND WESTERN STATES.

THE late unprecedented gathering at Memphis was an event which will occupy a prominent position in the history of our country. From the Atlantic seaboard stretching southward of the Potomac to the Gulf, and away northward and westward thence, throughout the whole valley of the Mississippi, there came together, as by one consent, a body of men, the largest and most practical. It was a rare spectacle exhibited to the world, of men occupying every grade in society, from the highest to the most humble, adhering to every variety of political tenet, representing interests long supposed to clash at many a fatal point, yet harmonizing—co-laboring—uniting on the leading principles of a convention not second to any which has assembled since the adoption of the Federal Constitution. The spirit of compromise which prevailed—the absolute forgetfulness of local jealousies—the elevated tone of feeling and sentiment—the fraternal courtesies and regards—the ardent patriotism—all combined to evince how thoroughly the strife of party and the bitterness of politics had been laid aside in this gathering of men for the high purposes of advancing a common weal.

In the history of conventional assemblies we have presented to us those of two distinct characters and objects: the political and the civil. The first has so long and so intimately associated itself in our minds with disorganization, revolution and the worst excesses, and has resulted so frequently in the despotism of order over order, that in a republic we justly entertain the greatest jealousy of its existence, and only consent to it at all on the demands of an imperious and overruling necessity. The civil convention, on the other hand, has been an invention of the present age, to carry out its purposes. It has operated as a lever to overcome the strongest resistance, and few can estimate how largely it has contributed to the general progress. By its means measures have been concerted of wide bearing and influence; men previously indifferent have been pledged to activity in carrying them out, and the best interests of man and society have been promoted, by a union of council and effort, where division would have been attended with entire defeat. The convention, in this aspect, is a powerful instrument for good, with few liabilities to evil. If evil has resulted from its action, the cases are few indeed, whilst it has been the characteristic feature of the age, to have it frequently assemble and entrust to its charge every variety of subject and matter. Almost daily, these organizations are taking place in every section of the country—whether to build a bridge, to construct a canal or a railroad—whether to correct an evil, or to propose a good—no subject but what has come before them. They have been efficient, too, in the last degree, in promoting the ends contemplated in their action.

The Memphis Convention, however, was one of an order higher than any of these, and when it was first suggested, many were found seriously to doubt the propriety of its assembling. They feared that it would terminate in one vast political machine, charged with disastrous results to the republic. Some scheme of western empire was at the bottom of it, and slept in the bosom of its projectors. We.

ourselves, heard from timid, but intelligent men, such expressions in more than one part of the country. It was dangerous, they thought, in the highest degree, to bring together men from more than half of the American Union, to deliberate upon interests which were not generally conceived to belong to the whole of it, and which would not, in all probability, belong to the whole of it. It was impossible that a body thus constituted would talk long upon railroads, canals, river navigation, and commerce, without flying at each other in free trade and tariff conflicts, without falling to president-making and general electioneering. But how thorough was the disappointment to these, when the whole eventuated only in the forcible exhibition of that strong trait in American character, which disposes it ever on the side of order and sound government. There was a proud proof furnished that union yet exists among us, and love of union, and that no man or set of men, no state or set of states, encourages any other desire than this, that the Federal Government should be administered so as to be felt benignantly and equally by all. Not to pervert the action of this government, but to elevate it, by elevating its constituent parts, was the grand object of the convention at Memphis. This we see exhibited in almost its first resolution:

Resolved—That, notwithstanding appearances indicate a disposition in the General Government neglectful of the interests of the West, inducing the necessity of conventions of the people, to make better known their condition and wants, yet, this convention, far from desiring to engender sectional prejudices, or to encourage attempts to alienate any portion of our country from the rest, regard the North and the South, the East and the West, as ONE PEOPLE, in sympathy and interest, as in government and country, and hold their countrymen of every State to the duties and responsibilities of a closely connected and indissoluble Union.

When, in that large assemblage, an individual arose to test the strength of feeling there, and proposed that the time had come for the removal of the seat of government westward of the Alleghany mountains, he was rebuked by a vote of unanimous disapproval, and his proposition not even allowed to appear on the Journal of the House.

The complete embodiment of everything that was discussed and acted upon by this interesting body—the various important reports and documents submitted on subjects of widest and most practical concern, by men of largest experience—has not yet been furnished to the public; but when it is, which, by authority, will be before very long, there will be thrown into general distribution a mass of material, upon which various operations may be based, and from which a general enlightenment of the popular mind may be expected upon subjects which have hitherto been scarcely understood at all. We are anxious for the appearance of the work.

Our part, in the present article, it will be, to sum up in a general way the action of the convention, its organization and composition, the causes which gave rise to it, and the results which are likely to grow out of its action; we shall not dwell longer upon these heads than is absolutely necessary, and we dwell upon them for the one purpose of extending their circulation and usefulness, and perpetuating their memory.

And first of its history. Small causes, we are told, lead often to

great results. The ostensible cause of this convention would seem to be an example in point. There were causes, to be sure, operating, which would have brought about the same end sooner or later; but the one we are about to mention, gave the first practical impulse and determination to the whole. In March, 1845, Capt. Bingham, of Arkansas, arrived in Memphis, charged with a mission in relation to his favorite military road to the Indian frontier. A public meeting was called at Memphis, and a committee appointed by it, charged with the subject. Dr. Shanks, from the committee, reported and suggested a convention, which assembled there in July. This, from the haste in which it was got up, and the limited extent of country it embraced, was so slimly attended, that by general consent the body was adjourned over to November, when a larger representation of all the interests might be obtained. Various committees were appointed, addresses published, and invitations extended, previous to adjournment. The result was, that nearly six hundred delegates assembled at the appointed time, from sixteen states and territories, with much of the talent in the country, and with a statesman to preside over the whole, who, whatever his individual views, must be classed among the very first and highest that the American republic has ever produced.

And second, of the organization and composition of the convention. It will be of general advantage that these should be known and remembered, that the character of the body may particularly appear, and the respective strength of the states and territories represented.

PRESIDENT.

HON. JOHN C. CALHOUN, OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

VICE PRESIDENTS.

DR. JAMES OVERTON, of Tennessee.	MAJ. A. BLACK, of South Carolina.
COL. JOHN HANNA, of Kentucky.	GEN. LEONARD WHITE, of Illinois.
COL. WM. STRONG, of Arkansas.	DR. RICHARD SNEED, of N. Carolina.
GEN. ROGER BARTON, of Mississippi.	J. S. HAWKINS, of Ohio.
CAPT. H. M. SHREVE, of Missouri.	HON. WM. BURCH, of Indiana.
HON. C. C. CLAY, of Alabama.	GEN. A. C. DODGE, of Iowa.
HON. O. I. MORGAN, of Louisiana.	B. B. MINOR, of Virginia.

MAJ. GEN. E. P. GAINES, of Louisiana.

SECRETARIES.

C. F. M. NOLAND, of Arkansas.	A. V. S. LINDSLEY, of Tennessee.
J. G. HARRIS, of Tennessee.	J. D. B. DE BOW, of South Carolina.
A. B. CHAMBERS, of Missouri.	F. A. LUMSDEN, of Louisiana.

T. B. DRINKER, of Ohio.

MARSHALS.

J. F. FARRINGTON, L. C. TREZEVANT, W. B. MORRIS, of Memphis.

MEMBERS.

FROM THE STATE OF TENNESSEE.

John Pattison, J. Delafield, Levi Prescott, S. D. Prescott, W. B. Morris, R. P. Neely, and William Ramsey.

On the part of the Legislature.—William Cullom, J. P. Lenoir, V. Sevier, J. H. Fletcher, and J. W. Harris, of the Senate; G. W. L. Marr, Robert J. Hall, William Houston, J. A. Whiteside, and William G. McAdoo, of the House of Representatives.

From the county of Sumner.—Col. George Elliott.

From the county of Davidson.—Dr. James Overton, John M. Bass, Joseph T. Ellison, John Bell, John Shelby, E. H. Foster, A. G. Payne, S. D. Morgan, Alexander Allison, Walter Overton, V. K. Stevenson, W. G. Harding, A. M. Rutledge, [illegible]. B. Southall, A. W. Vanlier, A. V. S. Lindsley, Andrew Ewing, J. G. Harris,

J A. Porter, John Hugh Smith, William E. Owen, M. Watson, John Harding, W. Williams, and D. Craighead.

From the county of Montgomery.—John H. Poston, E. P. McGinty, and Henry Cole.

From the county of Maury.—William L. Rankin, and A. M. Roseborough.

From the county of Wilson.—Ex. James C. Jones.

From the county of Knox.—A. G. Walker, and John F. Pate.

From the county of Williamson.—N. Perkins, M. F. Degraffenreid, John McGavock, and E. H. Hines.

From the county of Madison.—William T. Haskell, Samuel Hays, W. P. Goodwin, R. Fenner, George Snider, Milton Brown, Thomas W. Gamewell, A. Guthrie, J. S. Moore, A. Jackson, Alexander Greer, George W. Bond, Richard J. Fenner, Thomas Ingraham, J. D. Mason, William B. Turley, John M. Parker, and William H. Burgess.

From the county of Hardeman.—Thomas Jovner, George Wood, Ed. Polk, William Irions, M. C. Irwin, William McIntosh, J. T. Macon, Calvin Jones, Cullen Barron, W. L. Somerville, and Pitser Miller.

From the county of Fayette.—James Murdough, William Ruffin, William Burton, William Houston, J. C. Waddell, L. H. Coe, John Cobb, W. Shaw, William T. Brown, T. Rivers, J. L. Pulliam, William A. Booth, B. W. Williamson, E. Haskins, J. C. Cannon, Joseph Coe, D. A. Henderson, Bernard M. Patterson, J. J. Potts, Willis Reaves, N. Warren, Dr. Dunnahoe, A. Pebbles, W. C. Kinney, G. Falls, J. Hare, M. Baugh, Dr. Washington, S. C. Jones, J. S. Neole, B. Y. Trotter, William J. Bonner, F. G. Neole, R. H. Jackson, Whitfield Boyd, G. E. Bowers, John R. Wilson, Henry Miller, Thomas Horde, John P. Smith, and John Anderson.

From the county of Hamilton.—James A. Whiteside.

From the county of McMinn.—E. D. Renfroe.

From the county of Weakly.—J. B. Fonville, A. M. Thackler, and P. F. Gloss.

From the county of Gibson.—William H. Packard, John A. Taliaferro, and Benjamin Harris.

From the county of Shelby.—John Donaldson, E. W. Kenney, Samuel Leake, William Batle, A. B. Dubose, M. W. Goldsby, Lemuel Wren, Benjamin Cash, Richard Williams, Andrew Taylor, R. McIver, W. Bond, Eppy White, John Wilson, T. J. Goldsby, John Person, R. Massey, Thomas Allen, T. B. Crenshaw, John Freeman, Samuel Peake, James Lenoires, John Hamlin, Dr. Stout, Dr. Morgan, Dabney Ware, James Locke, T. Davis, James Kimbrough, John Pope, John D. White, E. M. Yerger, A. M. Looney, J. W. A. Pettit, David Looney, John T. Trezevant, B. F. McKiernan, C. Irving, Dr. Wyatt Christian, E. McGivney, J. J. Finley, R. Topp, J. R. Maltby, E. S. Davis, Dr. L. Shanks, J. Fowlkes, E. H. Porter, L. Pope, jr., H. C. Smith, H. G. Smith, George L. Holmes, F. S. Latham, Jesse Allen, James Seawell, W. F. Davis, Seth Wheatley, M. B. Winchester, L. C. Trezevant, J. H. McMahon, William Connell, J. F. Farrington, John Trigg, E. Gibbons, T. S. Foster, V. D. Barry, B. B. Blume, H. Van Pelt, E. Hickman, P. G. Gaines, W. A. Blythe, Dr. Dunn, Dr. Dubois, Lemuel Banks, A. R. Herron, and W. B. Morris.

FROM THE STATE OF OHIO.

J. S. Hawkins, James Bradford, Charles Cist, Thomas B. Drinker, N. Schoonmaker, W. Kinney, and E. Hamilton.

FROM THE STATE OF KENTUCKY.

David Banks, George Venable, and John Styles, from the county of Christian; John Hanna, R. A. Hatcher, and D. Givins, from the county of Fulton; D. W. Patterson, from the county of Singleton; Dr. E. C. Snyder, and L. M. Flournoy.

FROM THE STATE OF ARKANSAS.

William D. Ferguson, William Strong, D. H. Bingham, A. G. Mayers, C. F. M. Noland, T. Farreley, John Minnikin, M. W. Izard, C. L. Sullivan, F. E. Patrick, W. T. Tully, George W. Underhill, W. D. Dabney, George S. Fogle, M. Collins, Peter G. Reeves, and Henry W. Anderson.

FROM THE STATE OF MISSISSIPPI.

From the county of De Soto.—W. H. McCargo, Rev. W. McMahon, E. F. Buckner, A. H. Douglass, James H. Maury, John Lavines, Simeon Oliver, Samuel Watson, James Dupuy, Allen Jones, J. C. N. Robertson, John Henry, Thomas Williams, Felix Lebauve, George Ware, Thomas Oliver, B. G. Rainey, Byrd Forrest, Samuel Powell, Rutledge Powers, Nathaniel Davis, Tobias Hall, W.

D. Ellis, H. Robertson, John Robertson, John McGehee, Col. Gilliam, and Jesse Tillmore.

From the county of Pontotoc.—John Miller, jr., R W. Edmondson, Richard Bolton, John D. Bradford, Henry Goodrich, Edward W. Roots, John T. Wetherall, and W. L. Dogan.

From the county of Panola.—John W. Lumpkin, William Banks, J. E. Kirby, James Ruffin, A. E. Stratton, J. N. Davis, R. H. Coleman, Jesse Stratton, B. W. Bedford, Dr. Ellis, Anthony Foster, and H. Allen, jr.

From the county of Tippah.—H. Raney, W. M. Waford, H. P. Maxwell, F. S. Leake, Garret Davis, Thomas C. Hindman, T. J. Davidson, R. M. Christian, J. A. Pate, P. W. Saunders, James Simpson, Samuel Benton, D. B. Wright, and John A. Morman.

From the city of Natchez.—J. Young.

From the county of Marshall.—J. Hill, B. D. Mathews, James N. Copewood, John R. Norfleet, J. J. Howard, G. Stegar, Wiley D. Crook, Dr. Sayle, J. C. Thenill, John Hunter, G. K. Hubbard, Benjamin Smith, J. Cloud, William F. Rhodes, William F. Mason, Joseph T. Harroldson, W. Echols, P. Sugg, A. B. Bradford, W. Hemphill Jones, J. T. Finley, M. K. Sledge, William Arthur, M. Wilson, J. Mosely, A. P. Armistead, H. W. Walter, O. J. Strafford, M. D. Robinson, W. B. Hamlin, Roger Barton, Lewis Simmes, E. Upshaw, J. D. Martin, J. H. R. Taylor, W. A. P. Jones, D. Poynter, J. N. Greene, J. B. Day, C. Kyle, J. B. Fant, R. Radford, J. P Caruthers, H. Stovall, C. L. Thomas, R. Wall, M. Johnston, G. West, G. A. Wilson, William B. Taylor, George W. Smith, Robert Windell, Stephen Weller, and Thomas Mull.

From the county of Lafayette.—S. T. Wynn, T. Conkey, Taliaferro, C. W. Jones, James Stockart, J. F. Cushman, E. R. Belcher, James Brown, W. S. Jones, and William De Day.

From the county of Yallabusha.—John T. Leigh, Thomas Hardeman, A. Gillespie, Elisha Moore, R. Stokes, John A. Hartson, Josiah H. Payne, and Robert J. Rayburn, from the county of Tallahatchie; D. Sutton.

John Mayrant, C. R. Clifton, A. A. McWillie, W. R. Campbell, Edward B. Church, J. P. Cunningham, A. G. Carter, W. S. Bodley, N. D. Coleman, A. H. Arthur, Dr. William M. Gwinn, O. O. Woodman, Miles C. Folkes, W. H. Hurst, Thompson P. Ware, Adam L. Bingaman, Simon Murchison, John R. Stockman, T. A. S. Donipher, Woodman Wren, Alvarez Fisk, Edward Turner, T. Fulkerson, Thomas B. Hill, Henry Laird, Hugh McGehee, James M. Greer, M. Woodall, George W. Smith, S. Lewallen, Thomas Mall, S. Wooten, Col. J. S. Calhoun, Dr. D. Sutton, H. D. Bridgers, James S. Bailey, Madison McAfee, R. H. Stokes, J. H. Carson, E. Featheston, R. N. Christian, George H. Mitchell, and William M. Brown.

FROM THE STATE OF MISSOURI.

From the city of St. Louis.—James H. Lucas, Sullivan Blood, H. Lane, Isaac A. Hedges, L. M. Kennett, George Collier, H. M. Shreeve, A. B. Chambers, Robert Wash, Shadrack Penn, jr., James E. Yeatman, James Glasgow, Asa Wilgood, Thomas Allen, John McGuire, George W. Good, J. M. Field, Gregory Byrne, A. P. Ladoux, W. M. McPheton, William F. Wright, David Chambers, Francis Loving, David Mortimer, E. F. Chauteau, and D. D. Mitchell.

From Cape Girardeau.—Fenmore Rosier, Melton O. Bannon, and E. W. Haines.

From New Madrid.—H. P. Maulsby, George M. Netherton, John B. Martin, J. H. Waller, E. B. Lavalle, and G. Caruthers.

FROM THE STATE OF ALABAMA.

From the county of Madison.—Dr. Thomas Fearn, J. Penn, T. H. Newman, T. M. Mosely, J. D. Penn, and C. C. Clay.

A. P. Calhoun, of Marengo; F. P. Shepherd and Lewis Troost, of Mobile; Lewis Wyeth, of Marshall; Samuel J. Ragland, of Monroe; S. Foot, Burt Harrington, and R. H. Lee, of Franklin.

From the county of Franklin.—William B. Cooper, David Deshler, and John A. Moore.

From the county of Morgan.—Thomas B. Murphy.

FROM THE STATE OF NORTH CAROLINA.

Dr. Richard Sneed.

FROM THE STATE OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

From Charleston.—Hon. J. C. Calhoun, Col. James Gadsden, Maj. Alexander Black, Charles A. Magwood, William C. Gatewood, William H. Trescott, J. D. B. De Bow, and P. Calhoun.

From Columbia.—John Bryce.

FROM THE STATE OF LOUISIANA.

James Dunlap, Genl. E. P. Gaines, E. W. Sewell, G. Cruzat, J. D. Fuller, Alexander Bagget, F. A. Lumsden, Clark Woodruff and E. Prescott.—*From the State at large.*—C. G. Forshay, R. Patterson, Julius Culberson, Oliver J. Morgan, W. H. Southall, and Dr. James B. Sullivan.

FROM THE STATE OF ILLINOIS.

From the county of Jefferson.—Walter B. Scates.

From the county of Gallatin.—H. Eddy, Leonard White, Thomas L. Hick, John Wall, M. K. Lawler, J. Crenshaw, and S. A. Booker.

From White county.—S. Snowden Hayes.

From Massac county.—R. S. Nelson, Thomas G. C. Davis, and William McBeen.

From Williamson county.—John T. Davie.

From Union County.—John Dougherty.

From Alexander county.—J. Freeman.

From Fayette county.—M. M. McCurdy.

From other counties.—Gov. Thomas Ford, C. H. Constable, and Wm. Walters.

FROM THE STATE OF INDIANA.

Abner T. Ellis, William Burch, Willjam J. Wise, Thomas Bishop, and John J. Chandler.

FROM IOWA TERRITORY.

A. C. Dodge, Wm. B. Ewing, James G. Edwards, and Hugh T. Reed.

FROM TEXAS.

Samuel Hinton, J. T. Hawkins, and George A. Smith.

Mr. Calhoun, bringing the great weight and influence of his character to the chair, and his experience in governing deliberative assemblies, was enabled to concentrate the action of the body upon such subjects as would be of general interest. Without this concentration, the danger was of wasting valuable time upon minor and unimportant points; and perhaps, in the end, of defeating the very objects of the assemblage. Many there were, doubtless, present, who were furnished with ready arguments and finely ordered speeches, to be made upon occasion, in relation to infinite local schemes and enterprises, which had far better be presented in sectional conventions, and which would have been inappropriate in this. The main matter then was, to exclude all of this, and to settle down upon certain leading principles of action. This, by a happy system of management, was effected.

That we may perceive how various were the propositions which were intended to be presented, and which were actually submitted, it will be necessary to devote some space to their consideration. Those who were interested in the navigation of western rivers, were urgent in pressing the claims of each particular stream. The Tennessee, the Illinois, the Osage, the Ohio, the Red river, as well as the father of rivers himself, with all their shoals and obstructions, their bars and snags, occupied a place in the great schedule of contemplated western appropriation and improvement. Nor only these, there were those who would have fain played their oratory upon the rippling stream, which almost noiselessly wends its course by the side of their native village. The youngest offspring of the father of rivers would not think itself deserving of neglect.

The navigation of streams and rivers being provided for, their maritime defenses, and their banks and levees came next in order; and here the schemes which had been discussed in the public prints were so many, and some of them so vast, that it required no little grasp of mind to comprehend and embrace them. The millions of acres of land located in Missouri, Arkansas, Louisiana, etc., drowned by the overflowing river tides, of no value whatever while in this condition, and really generating disease upon the country around—lands in relation to which Congress had been memorialized, and a report in their favor presented by the late Mr. Linn, were of course ably presented. But then, there was danger here of injuring a really good cause, by presenting too much at a time. There is such a thing as alarming men, by exhibiting a whole subject to them at once, particularly if it be a vast one, when, by exhibiting each particular part in succession, and dwelling upon it, you prepare them for understanding and adopting these parts when taken together. And this remark applies, with equal force, to the propositions for armaments and naval fleets on the western rivers, dry-docks, armories and navy yards, military roads and fortifications, frontier defenses and numerous other equally important matters. These things are all necessary, and must sooner or later be had; but great wisdom and discretion are required in presenting them at proper times and in proper proportions, so that more may not be urged at one period upon the country, than the public purse would be able to endure: the result of which must be, in every instance, disappointment and defeat. The resources of the country are vast, and are to be developed, and their defenses are of highest consideration; but these things can only be achieved in the regular and natural progress of things.

It would be needless to run on in this connection, to speak of the innumerable subjects which the public prints, in every part of the country, had been suggesting for a month before that the convention would naturally and properly consider. This chaotic mass was reduced to order by certain practical and business men, and everything which promised only to disarrange and perplex the action of the body was cast off. When this was effected, it was perceived, at once, that the high purposes of the convention would certainly be carried out.

Mr. Calhoun, in his opening address, on taking the chair, presented an admirable view of the whole field which could be properly and practically embraced. He did not wish to touch upon mooted questions, and was happy to perceive, in the call of the convention, a determination to exclude everything which might, by a possibility, draw out political prejudices. The West, South-west, and South, were to him deeply interesting portions of the union, and whatever would tend to elevate them, would meet with his hearty co-operation. These were the great agricultural divisions, whether terminating on the southern Atlantic, on the extended gulf, or running backward of the Alleghany mountains and reaching to the Lakes. In these sections, two things next to the production, was the distribution of their wealth in proper markets, with a command of those markets; and the military and naval safeguards which could be thrown around the various necessary transportations. He did not, himself, believe in the power of

the General Government to conduct a system of internal improvement. He had, independently of other objections, seen the evil effects of it, in too many instances where it has been attempted, and the system of log-rolling which ensued; but, in relation to the great highway of western commerce, at least, the great inland sea of the country—the Mississippi—he did not, for a moment, question that government was as much obligated to protect, defend, and improve it in every particular, as it was to conduct these operations on the Atlantic seaboard. It was the genius of our government, and what was to him its beautiful feature, that what individual enterprise could effect alone, was to be left to individual enterprise; what a state and individuals could achieve together, was left to the joint action of states and individuals; but, what neither of these, separately or conjoined, were able to accomplish, that, and that only, was the province of the Federal Government. He thought this was the case in reference to the Mississippi river. There was an indirect aid, however, which might be furnished by the federal arm, to internal improvement schemes. As a land proprietor, (a position which he hoped it would not long occupy,) the government, in consideration of the improved value of its public domain, might grant alternate sections of unoccupied land to the roads, etc., proposing to pass through it. A *quid pro quo* was only fair when a real benefit was obtained. A bounty, too, might be furnished to railroads, by allowing their iron duty free, which would be equivalent to two or three thousand dollars per mile. This would not, he thought, interfere with the manufacturers of iron at home, since he had it on good authority that they could produce it as cheap as the foreign article, taking all things together, and the bounty afforded them by government now, would only enable them, under the influence of monopoly, to keep up prices for a long period far above what would otherwise satisfy. In regard to the various railroad schemes in contemplation, he considered that which sought to connect the southern seaboard with the Mississippi Valley as most important in every particular. Commercially, it threw open markets to western produce, at all times and seasons, and furnished two outlets where but one had existed before. In a time of war, there could be no estimate of the value of this. The mouth of the Mississippi might be blockaded, and the Gulf of Mexico swept by foreign cruisers, and the vast produce of the valley would not be left to perish, but could seek its eastward passage in safety to the Atlantic ports—and when the canal, of which he was much in favor, was constructed, its way to the lakes would be equally open for a large portion of the year. In conclusion, Mr. Calhoun dwelt upon the rare advantages possessed by the regions of the South and West above all others on the globe—their fertility, their diversity of climate and production, their geographical position—and ventured to predict that in less than one generation, should the union continue (which he hoped would be perpetual), the West would be engaged in deliberations to extend its connection with the Pacific, as it now was with the Atlantic, and that the connection would be as intimate with the one as with the other. "In the end, the commerce of both would be commanded, and the great valley become the centre of the commerce of the world, as well

as of our great union, if we shall preserve our liberty and our free popular institutions."

We have dwelt longer upon this address than we intended; but the high source from which it emanated, and the bearing which it is likely to have upon the best interests of the country, operated so much upon our minds that we could not be satisfied with a casual reference.

The following were the committees appointed by the convention, and the different subjects with which they were charged :—

Committee on the Military and Naval Resources, and Necessities of the South and West.—Roger Barton of Mississippi, chairman—members from Alabama, Tennessee, Louisiana, Indiana, South Carolina, Pennsylvania, and Missouri.

Committee on Improvement of the Ohio River.—Thos. J. Bigham of Pennsylvania, chairman—members from Indiana, Missouri, Ohio, Virginia, Kentucky, Louisiana, and Illinois.

Committee on Improvement of Western Rivers.—A. B. Chambers of Missouri, chairman—members from Missouri, Mississippi, Tennessee, Ohio, Virginia, Pennsylvania, Louisiana, Kentucky, Arkansas, Illinois, and Alabama.

Committee on Forts and Defenses, and Indian Frontier West.—A. G. Meyers of Arkansas, chairman—members from Missouri, Texas, Iowa, Louisiana, Ohio, and Illinois.

Committee on Western Mails.—M. B. Winchester of Tennessee, chairman—members from Mississippi, Louisiana, Indiana, Missouri, Illinois, Ohio, Virginia, Arkansas, Iowa, Kentucky, and Tennessee.

Committee on Manufactures in the South.—Abner D. Parke of Tennessee, chairman—members from Tennessee, Missouri, Louisiana, Kentucky, Mississippi, Illinois, Virginia, and South Carolina.

Committee on Western Marine Hospitals.—Dr. W. Christian of Tennessee, chairman—members from Missouri, Indiana, Kentucky, Texas, Ohio, Virginia, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Louisiana.

Committee on Levecing and Reclaiming the Public Lowlands on the Borders of the Large Western Rivers.—David Craighead of Tennessee, chairman—members from Arkansas, Illinois, Tennessee, Virginia, Missouri, Louisiana, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Illinois.

Committee on Connection of the Lakes with Western Rivers by Ship Canal.—W. Walters of Illinois, chairman—members from Illinois, Ohio, Indiana, Missouri, Kentucky, Louisiana, and Arkansas.

Committee on Railroad Connection of Southern Atlantic Ports with the Mississippi River.—Robertson Topp of Tennessee, chairman—(Col. Gadsden of South Carolina, presented the Report)—members from Tennessee, Mississippi, Alabama, Kentucky, Louisiana, Illinois, Arkansas, Virginia, Indiana, Ohio, Missouri, and South Carolina.

Committee on Western Armory.- Henry Eddy of Illinois, chairman—members from Tennessee, Mississippi, Indiana, Missouri, Pennsylvania, Louisiana, Virginia, Arkansas, Iowa, and Kentucky.

Committee on Military Road through Arkansas.—D. H. Bingham of Arkansas, chairman—members from Arkansas, Tennessee, Kentucky, Illinois, and Virginia.

Committee on Lakes, Harbors, and Defenses.—James A. Briggs of Ohio, chairman—members from Kentucky, Pennsylvania, Illinois, and Indiana.

Committee on Warehousing System.—B. B. Minor of Virginia, chairman—members from South Carolina, Louisiana, Arkansas, Mississippi, Kentucky, Iowa, Missouri, Pennsylvania, Alabama, Illinois, Tennessee, and Indiana.

These committees were suggested for the most part by the respective delegations, and comprised, in general, the practical and business men of each, and frequently the men of largest capacities. Information had been collected and reports drawn up by many, long before the meeting of the convention, to be presented before it. It was to be regretted that no other disposition could be made of these, from the press of time, than a place upon the table to await an appearance

in print. Had they been read and considered, much new matter might have been added, and much perhaps stricken out. As it is, the convention could hardly be considered responsible for all the sentiments of the reports, since but two or three of them were fully presented. The character of those by whom they were drawn, however, is at least some surety for their contents; and the general rule excluded from consideration anything upon which there was any great diversity of opinion.

We shall, under the several heads, refer to some of these reports in the succeeding pages of our work. They will furnish material for comment on future occasions, for at present we can do no more than introduce the general matter which was acted upon by almost unanimous consent. There was nothing which afforded a better evidence of the good feelings, and disposition for equality and fairness, which prevailed than the plan adopted in taking the sense of the house. A single delegate from North Carolina or Texas had as much power and influence as the two hundred and fifty from Tennessee; and Eastern Virginia, which was not contemplated in the original call, was invited in by acclamation, and her delegate placed upon the list of Vice Presidents. The votes were by States and Territories, each having an equal voice without regard to representation.

A member from Mississippi, Judge Clifton, offered a series of resolutions, summing up and embracing the subjects of most of the important resolutions which accompanied the reports. These were intended to facilitate progress, but they were laid on the table for the time, and afterward in part engrafted upon the report of a final committee of one from each of the States. Judge Clifton's proposition to admit railroad iron duty free met with objection and opposition, and had to be withdrawn. We give his resolution on the subject of the railroad, which differs somewhat from the one finally adopted.

Resolved—"That the extension of the South Carolina and Georgia railroad to Mills Point in Kentucky, to Nashville and Memphis in Tennessee, and to Vicksburg, Natchez, and Rodney, in Mississippi, is an object of the first importance to the people of the Mississippi valley, and of our Southern Atlantic border; and that the consideration of Congress is respectfully invoked to the propriety of rendering such aid as can be constitutionally given, by granting alternate sections of the public lands, or otherwise, in view of the improved facilities to be thereby afforded for transporting the public mails and troops and munitions of war."

The committee charged with the preparation and adjustment of all matter offered for the final action of the convention, consisted of one from each of the States, as follows:—

Gov. J. C. Jones, Tennessee.	T. J. Bigham, Pennsylvania.
Jas. Guthrie, Kentucky.	J. H. Lucas, Missouri.
T. B. Craighead, Arkansas.	C. C. Clay, Alabama.
Col. Jas. Gadsden, S. Carolina.	C. R. Cliffton, Mississippi.
W. P. Scates, Illinois.	Elwood Fisher, Ohio.
H. T. Reed, Iowa.	A. T. Ellis, Indiana.
B. B. Minor, Virginia.	R. Sneed, North Carolina.

This committee offered a set of resolutions, which were adopted almost without debate. Two others were added on by the house in relation to the bar of St. Louis, and the Arkansas road, which were only forced through by a long and exciting discussion, in which the delegates from these sections took a conspicuous part. The Alabama

delegation were earnest in presenting the claims of the bar in front of Mobile, but coming at a late stage in the proceedings, the vote to lay on the table was very near unanimous.

We give the resolutions:—

1st.—*Resolved*, That the reports of the various committees, presented to the convention, be printed, together with such documents accompanying them, as the Committee appointed to supervise the printing of the proceedings of the convention shall deem necessary.

2d.—*Resolved*, That safe communication between the Gulf of Mexico and the interior, afforded by the navigation of the Mississippi and Ohio rivers and their principal tributaries, is indispensable to the defense of the country in time of war, and essential also to its commerce.

3d.—*Resolved*, That the improvement and preservation of the navigation of those great rivers, are objects as strictly national as any other preparation for the defense of the country, and that such improvements are deemed by this convention impracticable by the States, or individual enterprise, and call for the appropriation of money for the same by the General Government.

4th.—*Resolved*, That the deepening of the mouth of the Mississippi, so as to pass ships of the largest class, cost what it may, is a work worthy of the nation, and would greatly promote the general prosperity.

5th.—*Resolved*, That if the policy of reinforcing our Navy with war steamers be adopted, the western waters are proper sources of supply, as they abound in iron, the best material for their construction, and in lead and copper, important materials for munitions of war; provisions also being cheap, and the skill requisite for their construction and navigation being ample in this region, which already possesses the largest steam commercial marine in the world.

6th.—*Resolved*, That the project of connecting the Mississippi river with the Lakes of the North, by a ship canal, and thus with the Atlantic Ocean, is a measure worthy of the enlightened consideration of Congress.

7th.—*Resolved*, That the intercourse between the Gulf of Mexico and the Atlantic coast ought to be preserved unimpaired, and that ample military and naval defenses and additional light-houses and beacons should be established along the coast of the Gulf of Mexico, and at the most eligible points.

8th.—*Resolved*, That the Gulf and Lake coasts are greater in extent than the Atlantic seaboard; that the interests to be defended in one quarter are quite as important, and altogether as national as those in the other; and that the expenditures required for the proper defenses of the Gulf and Lakes will fall far short of what has been freely voted for the coast defenses of the Atlantic.

9th.—*Resolved*, That Congress should establish a National Armory and Foundry at some point on the western waters, at as early a period as practicable.

10th.—*Resolved*, That the Marine Hospitals on the western and southern waters, the construction of which has been commenced or authorized by Congress, ought to be prosecuted to completion with the least practicable delay.

11th.—*Resolved*, That the Mail service of the West and South requires great improvement in speed and regularity, particularly on the western rivers, and that measures ought to be taken for the prompt extension, by Government, of the Magnetic Telegraph, into or through the Valley of the Mississippi.

12th.—*Resolved*, That millions of acres of the public domain, lying on the Mississippi river and its tributaries, now worthless for purposes of cultivation, might be reclaimed by throwing up embankments, so as to prevent overflow; and that this convention recommend such measures as may be deemed expedient to accomplish that object, by grant of said lands or an appropriation of money.

13th.—*Resolved*, That Railroads and communications from the Valley of the Mississippi to the South Atlantic ports, in giving greater facilities to trade, greater dispatch in traveling, and in developing new sources of wealth, are, in all their salutary influences on the commercial, social, and political relations, strongly urged upon the consideration and patriotism of the people of the West: and they are the more recommended as works within the power of private enterprise to construct, and as affording profitable investment of capital.

14th.—*Resolved*, That in order that the earliest opportunity may be afforded for private individuals and enterprise to direct their capital and energies to the completion of the important roads projected, the convention recommend to the delegations present, to appoint committees charged with the duty of prompt and

early applications to their respective Legislatures, for charters to construct such roads as may pass through their States; and to ask such aid and patronage from said States as they, in their discretion, may deem proper and necessary, to aid in the construction of the works.

15th.—*Resolved*, That as many of the roads projected may pass through the public domain, this convention would respectfully urge upon the consideration of Congress, the equity of granting the right of way and alternate sections, in aid of the works so situated—such grant, in the opinion of this convention, being no more than a fair compensation paid by the proprietor for the enhanced value imparted to the sections of land retained by Government.

16th.—*Resolved*, That efficient steps should be taken by the General Government to move and prevent the recurrence of the obstacles in the Mississippi, opposite the city of Saint Louis, so that the harbor there may at all times be accessible, as objects of public utility, and of a national character, and entirely beyond the ability of Missouri to accomplish.

17th.—*Resolved*, That it is expedient that Congress should make an appropriation of money, for the purpose of completing the Military Road from the west bank of the Mississippi (opposite Memphis) through the swamps, to the highlands in Arkansas, in the direction of the various military posts on the western frontier.

18th.—*Resolved*, That a Dry Dock, and convenient arrangement, for the repairs and refitting of Government vessels, should be established at some suitable point on the Gulf of Mexico.

19th.—*Resolved*, That the president appoint a committee of five members of this convention, to memorialize Congress on the various topics embraced in the foregoing resolutions.

20th.—*Resolved*, That the president also appoint a committee of five members of this convention, to address our common constituents on the same subjects.

The Committee on the Warehousing System having made a divided report, this interesting subject does not appear among the resolutions. We shall, in another page, discuss the subject at large, and exhibit the causes which led to its exclusion; at present we simply refer to it.

The Chair appointed the following gentlemen to draw up the memorial and address, provided for in the 19th and 20th resolutions:—

To memorialize Congress:

Col. J. Gadsden, of South Carolina. Leroy Pope, of Tennessee.
J. Guthrie, of Kentucky. J. Luca, of Missouri.
R. Barton, of Mississippi.

To prepare Address:

Hon. John Bell, of Tennessee. J. S. Hayes, of Illinois.
Thos. Fearn, of Alabama. Elwood Fisher, of Ohio.
L. Shanks, of Tennessee.

In bringing to a close our remarks on the Memphis Convention, we cannot but dwell for a moment upon that happy union and co-operation which it evinced on the part of the whole South and West. They are bound together by ties which can never be severed. Amid all the bitterness and jealousies which political influences have begotten, there is too much in common between these sections, too many similar interests exist, too many sympathies and connections, for them ever to act otherwise than united. Bound together in this way, their destinies are one. Elevated or depressed, it must be together. No other sections in the Union have reasons so strong for maintaining their interesting relation. We rejoice to see this felt and acknowledged. We rejoice to see the Palmetto State and the time-honored Dominion sending their sons to shake hands with the hardy pioneers of the distant Arkansas. We hail Texas, our younger

sister, leaving her Gulf-seat to hold converse with the distant Lakes. It is a beautiful commingling, and long, long after the occasion has passed away, the remembrance of this assemblage on the high bluffs of the Father of Rivers, will live fresh in memory:—every bosom will retain the kindly influences which were exerted, and when the South and the West are interested, we will ever feel that we are brothers all—all citizens of one GLORIOUS UNION!

Art. III.—SOUTHERN ATLANTIC AND MISSISSIPPI RAILROAD.

THIS is an age of railroads; but the one which we are about to consider has received such general and hearty approval, and has of late obtained such an impetus from simultaneous movements in every section through which it is to be passed, and with which it is to be connected, that we are no longer to look upon it as a project, a problematical undertaking, but as something certain, something, in the enthusiastic language of its advocate, "already accomplished." As far back as 1831, Stephen Elliott, of South Carolina, in the good old days of the *Southern Quarterly*, cast his eyes from Charleston westward, and was thought a visionary for suggesting steam and locomotives. Three years after, General Gaines, of Louisiana, was found pressing the matter urgently upon the government; and Col. Long, in consequence, was sent out to make the survey. South Carolina, about this period, had compromised her difficulties, and was eager to revive her pristine prosperity. She looked around for the causes of her decay, and convened her merchants to talk on foreign commerce and western railroads. Over the mountains she sought to strike the Ohio at Louisville and Cincinnati. The noble Hayne died in the service of the enterprise; but it all failed, and the "grass" continued to "grow in the streets of Charleston."

Slowly and surely the spirit of enterprise has been moving along from that day to this. It has never talked of the Mississippi, Savannah, and Charleston, but it has been working its way onward, looking to the West. Without a grand scheme at its incipiency, it is reaching to a grand consummation.

From Charleston to Augusta, there is a railroad operating, at one time the longest in the Union, and in a condition now of prosperity seldom surpassed. Georgia has taken up the line thence, and away in the north-west of the State has fixed a point, or nature has fixed it for her, where her railroads from Augusta and Savannah terminate. These roads, too, have of late been doing a handsomely remunerating business.

The receipts on 148 miles of the Central Railroad from Savannah to Macon, for the year ending 1st April, 1843, were	$248,026
Expenses same time,	109,819
	138,207
For the year ending December 1st 1843, 190 miles in operation:	
Receipts,	$227,531
Expenses,	134,341
4½ per cent. on cost.	93,190

For the last year the road yielded over 6 per cent. upon the original cost.

For the six months ending 1st October, 1844. the gross receipts of the Charleston and Augusta Railroad were $283,409; the expenses $180,000, leaving $103,409 to be divided between 34,000 shares, more than 6 per cent. per annum.

From the point Atlanta, as a centre, routes projected and in course of construction radiate in every direction. Virginia has it in contemplation to strike here from Richmond. Montgomery, Ala., is struggling with the same object, and Mobile would gladly obviate her tedious and uncertain steamboat navigation on the Alabama river, by adopting a similar connection. Nor are we to suppose that New Orleans will slumber where there is a possibility of her being injuriously affected.

South-westward from Atlanta, Vicksburg and Natchez on the Mississippi have lately been awakened, and their delegates, in the late convention, had their charts and surveys ready to exhibit how soon they were prepared to add on links to the great chain connecting the seaboard with the valley. Nor only this, westward still is the scheme of enterprise—through the northern parts of Louisiana, away onward into Texas, in the direction of California. Said one of these delegates, and a man of extended views:

"The route intersects centrally, and crosses the cotton region—EMPHATICALLY THE COTTON REGION OF THE SOUTH—the States of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and if extended out to Texas, that portion of Louisiana which holds her garden lands—the valleys of the Mississippi, Tensas, Ouachita, Black and Red rivers. It would be another FATHER OF RIVERS, or rather an *iron stream*, intersecting and blessing a region almost as great in extent as that he blesses. The accomplishment of this grand scheme of internal improvement would do away with all necessity for the long projected canal across the Isthmus of Florida. Cuba would be no longer the Key of the Gulf. In the hands of a foreign power, she could do us but little harm, while a line of dangerous coast navigation of near fifteen hundred miles, would be avoided. The terrors of the Florida reefs would be obviated—since freight and passengers for the immediate and adjacent regions of the South, would seek this channel of transportation, and New Orleans herself might more readily, and at less cost, receive through it her merchandise from the East.

Distance from Charleston to Natchez, - - - - -	700	miles.
Natchez to the Rio Grande, - - - - - - -	620	do.
Rio Grande to Mazatlan, at mouth of Gulf of California,	450	do.
Total, - - - - - - - - - - -	1770	do.
Road completed and in operation, or nearly so, - -	400	do.
Leaving unfinished, - - - - - - - - -	1370	do.
To Sandwich Islands from Mazatlan, - - - -	3000	do.
To China from Mazatlan, - - - - - -	8000	do

"If extended to Texas, and through to the rich intendencies of Tamaulipas, Coahuila, and Durango, striking the Gulf of California at Mazatlan, near its mouth, it would render unnecessary the ener-

mous expense required to perfect a canal across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec or Darien—an undertaking even now of problematical success.

"Communication with the Pacific being thus opened, an old dream of the early navigators would be accomplished—a direct passage to the regions of "Golden Carthy and the Orient Ind" would be opened.

"The vast trade of the Pacific would flow through the California terminus of the road, and, having facility for communication, the transportation of troops, stores, munitions of , for land or naval purposes, we could give protection to the] and increasing fleet of American whale-ships with less cost than under the present system.

"The distance, by the route from Charleston to the Pacific, could be acccomplished in some *sixty or seventy hours*—thus performing a trip now requiring long months of toil and dangerous exposure, that must be undergone, to communicate by sea with our Oregon settlements or the Pacific squadron."

One thing must strike every one in this connection:—we are to be sure, first, that we have Oregon and California to work so largely upon. It is not our intention to dampen the ardor of those who appear to be so far beyond the age, knowing as we do that the enterprise and the resources of our people are without limit, and that the developments among us for the past few years have outstripped all calculation. We leave the Texas and California railway, then, as one of those achievements which is reserved for us at some other period, when we have conquered all the obstacles which obstruct our free intercommunication immediately at home. Texas, we know, will soon be able to take care of herself; and California is at best a distant vision whose dim outlines only can be traced.

We return to that interesting point, Atlanta, in De Kalb county, Geo., where the Atlantic railroads now terminate. The State of Georgia has intersected it by a road nearly completed, extending to Chattanooga, on the Tennessee river, in the State of Tennessee. There remains of this road about fifty miles of work, the grading and masonry of which are completed, and the whole under contract. From Chattanooga to Nashville, Tenn., the distance is 130 miles, and the motives are the strongest in the world for a connection by railroad. An able writer on the subject states, that the Cumberland river, whose mouth is only 60 miles from the mouth of the Ohio, can be reached in this way from the Atlantic, and that it is proved, with comparatively small expenditure for locks and dams, the Cumberland may be made navigable all the year. The cost of this road is estimated at $12,500, per mile, half the average cost of railroads in the United States.

130 miles at $6200 per mile for iron,	$806,000
Bridge across Tennessee river,	100,000
do. do. Sequatchy do.	25,000
do. do. Stone do.	15,000
do. do. Mill Creek,	8,000
Excavation and Embankment, $1000 per mile,	130,000
Culverts and Small Bridges, about 100,	100,000
Superstructure, Stone and Cedar, $1200 per mile,	156,000
Tunnel, or Inclined Planes,	300,000
Total,	$1,640,000

A great part of the work can be effected by holders of property on the route, with their spare force, and taking out the labor in stock.

To exhibit the profitableness of this Nashville and Chattanooga railroad, it is only necessary to compare the country to be reached by it, with the country passed through by the Carolina and Georgia companies, and the large revenues they are now deriving.

We refer again to authority:

From Nashville and Clarksville there passes on the Cumberland annually, of the products of Middle Tennessee and Southern Kentucky, 50,000 bags of cotton, and 12,000 hogsheads of tobacco. Most of this, it is thought, could be transferred to the railroad. Estimating the freight of this at two cents per ton per mile, greater by two-thirds of a cent than the Baltimore and Ohio railroad is now carrying freight, we have

Cotton, 50,000 bales,	$48,750
Tobacco, 12,000 hogsheads,	32,560
Other most probable items, from Charleston and Savannah, dry-goods, sugar, coffee, rice, &c.,	60,000
Passengers 30,000, three cents per mile,	90,000
Carrying mail, storage, &c.,	10,000
Beef, corn, pork, lumber, flour, &c.,	40,000
Total,	$281,310

Deduct $100,000 for expenses of road (they were only $109,000 on the Central Georgia road, 18 miles longer, in 1843), and there remains a gain of $181,310, or nine per cent. on the cost, if it should reach $2,000,000.

The resources of Tennessee may be considered inexhaustible. They are seeking the best markets, and are seeking to be developed by facilities in reaching these markets. The State has 28,000,000 acres of land, rich in coal and iron, and rich in agricultural capacities. Her live stock, in 1840, was valued at $23,331,469, and the other products of her soil for the year, were over $11,000,000, viz.:

Corn,	44,986,000	at 15 cents per bushel,	$6,747,900
Cotton,	27,700,000 lbs.	5 do.	1,385,050
Tobacco,	29,550,000 do.	3 do.	886,500
Barley,	4,800	50 cents per bushel,	2,400
Oats,	7,035,000	20 do. do.	1,407,000
Rye,	304,000	40 do. do.	121,600
Buckwheat,	17,000	$1 per bushel,	17,000
Potatoes,	1,904,000	20 cents per bushel,	380,800
Hemp and Flax,	3,000 tons	$4 per ton,	120,000
Hay,	31,000 do.	$3 do. do.	93,000
Sugar,	288,000 lbs.	8 cents per lb.	25,400
			$11,186,650

Her iron, though scarcely at all developed, reached near $2,000,000 the same year. Her manufactures, immensely grown up since then (she has now fifty cotton factories, alone consuming 10,000 bags cotton), were near half a million dollars. The products of her forests and distilleries were about the same. Her flouring and oil mills were over a million dollars; making, with a long list of articles not entitled to a particular enumeration, a grand total of $44,000,000 of annual wealth.

Tennessee is asserted to be richer even than Pennsylvania, in coal

and iron, which would thus be enabled to reach a sea-port. "The opening of these mines," says the article to which we have been referring, "would give a new impulse to the iron trade of Tennessee, and at the same time be a source of revenue to the road. Coal is now selling at Nashville from 12 to 18 cents per bushel; and it may be safely said, that its consumption would be doubled if its cost could be reduced one half. From a calculation, it will appear that coal can be carried on the road to Nashville at 4 cents per bushel, and can be furnished at the mine at 1 or 2 cents, making, at the most, 6 cents a bushel. The revenue to the road from its transportation would be fifty or sixty thousand dollars. Even Charleston and Savannah might be eventually supplied at from 13 to 14 cents per bushel, from these mines."

The question with all of this produce is, how shall the market be reached most advantageously? If the extra expense in reaching an eastern market can be compensated by the better prices there, which would be the case, unquestionably, in reference to a large amount of produce, the eastern market would command that amount. For most of the heavier articles, the old channels of trade, the Mississippi and New Orleans would yet be preserved. We are not to suppose that they would sustain any considerable loss.

The lowest rate of railroad freight could scarcely approach that on the western steamboats. A hogshead of tobacco of a thousand weight, may be transported from St. Louis or Louisville to New Orleans for $3—fifteen hundred miles; and a barrel of pork from the same places for 75 cents. This, of course, will be powerful competition to endure. It is thought impossible that heavy freight can be taken away from New Orleans, unless the eastern market should be found so favorable as to compensate all extra charges. In reference to the most costly articles, the case is otherwise; these will seek the railroad at all times; for a great point will be the saving of time, which is the main consideration.

"No dry-goods merchant," says a writer, "at Little Rock, Arkansas, for example, could successfully compete, upon the old mode of transportation by sea via New Orleans, with his neighbor who obtained his supplies by the Mississippi and Atlantic railroad. The advantage which the latter would secure in time, insurance and capital, would enable him to meet the wants and suit the tastes of his customers, with a promptitude, and at a cost, which would defy competition through any other channel. In this view, *time* is important. This is still more strikingly true as to mails and passengers."

We have dwelt rather long upon the Nashville branch of the Atlantic and Mississippi railroad; but most of the observations made will apply with equal force to the Memphis, Vicksburg, or Natchez terminations.

In reference to Memphis we desire to make some remarks. The inhabitants of this young, yet vigorous and rising town, are all eager to be reached by this scheme of enterprise. The road would, under such circumstances, strike the Mississippi at a point of never-interrupted navigation, and terminate in a town, destined, we humbly conceive, at no distant day, to become one of the first in the whole valley. It is more distant from Charleston and Savannah than Nash-

ville, but it presents equally great, if not greater advantages. It
not conceivable that such a town would consent to remain long wi
out a branch of the railroad. Independently of the commercial
pect, it would furnish means of throwing down upon the Atlan
coasts, in thirty-six hours, during war, for the common defense, a
number of stout hearts and strong arms from the distant West.

This road, as at present projected, will cross the country from
lanta, along the heights of the Etowah to Rome, interrupted by ste
navigation down the Coosa, to a point from whence a railroad nor
ward and westward will strike the Tennessee river at Gunter's lan
ing, near Claysville, Alabama, and interrupted again by steamers
this river, to the eastern terminus of the Tuscumbia railroad, now
operation. The Tuscumbia railroad extends from Decatur to T
cumbia, Alabama. From Tuscumbia, to La Grange, Tennessee, the
is a road already projected and chartered. From Tuscumbia to Me
phis the distance is one hundred and thirty miles, the road over fi
miles of which is now about half completed. In the way of the Me
phis enterprise there are few natural obstructions, and the whole m
be completed, with proper exertion, in a short period, and at an
pense, comparatively speaking, not very great.

We shall conclude our subject by introducing the major and m
important part of the report on railroads, which Col. Gadsden,
South Carolina, presented at the late Memphis Convention, estee
ing as we do the paper most highly; and also by presenting an
tract from a late number of the Merchant's Magazine, which exh
its, in forcible terms, the causes of that anxiety on the part of
East to reach the Valley of the Mississippi.

"The West is richer than the East in the surplus products of
soil, and every year will increase its advantage. It is getting to f
nish most of the flour consumed in the country. In pork, lard,
and beef, the West is increasingly pre-eminent. In wool, tobac
and cotton, the West is gaining the ascendency, and promises so
to have a virtual monopoly. In sugar, molasses, and hemp, the W
furnishes the whole produce. In mineral productions, the West pro
ises to excel almost as much as in agricultural. Beds of coal a
iron abound from the Alleghanies to the Ozark mountains. In le
and copper, the West seems likely to supply a great part of the wor
In materials for building houses, ships, railroads, furniture, &c.,
West has all the varieties of stone, from the recent sand-stone to pri
itive granite and marble, with timber and cabinet woods in abundan
Before ten years, Ohio will be second only to Pennsylvania in
quantity of iron produced and manufactured. Of steam-engines,
West has already more than the East, and the West almost monop
lizes the manufacture of hemp. The West, in sixty years, will pr
ably contain *one hundred millions* of people, while the East will ha
but twenty millions."

COL. GADSDEN'S REPORT.

"The Valley of the Mississippi is among the most favored regio
of the globe—the Father of Rivers taking its rise on the very verge
the Arctic regions, and receiving, as it courses south, tributaries eq
in magnitude, from the Alleghany and Rocky mountains, and fina

rging its accumulated waters at near three thousand five hun-
niles from its source, in the warmer hemisphere of the Gulf of
co. This Gulf it is annually encroaching upon by its alluvial de-
; and so certain, though slow and imperceptible, are these daily
nents—these new creations of land and soil—that the speculation
extravagant, that in some future day the delta of the Mississippi,
multiplicity and shallowness of its mouths, like that of the Nile,
e closed to the egress of foreign shipping; or the navigation of
southern seas will have to seek an entrance into this inland ocean
en the headlands of Cuba, south, and the keys of Florida, north.
Within the personal observation of one of the Committee, the in-
of these alluvions at the Balize, has exceeded three miles in
to the northward and eastward, and the approaches to the Mis-
pi are now indicated at more than fifty miles from the shore, by
esh and discolored water of the ocean, and by the gradually
and muddy state of the bottom of the gulf.

n inspection of the map of that vast and fertile plain, south of
st degree of latitude, and which constitutes so large a portion of
evated and productive soils of Louisiana, leads to the conviction
has been reclaimed from the ocean by the annual contributions
se streams, which in their rapid descent from the mountain ele-
s of the interior, are but agents in the hands of Providence to
out new evidences of his wonderful creations.

hese continued and successive changes in the physical world are
ntos of events, slow but certain, the injurious and restrictive in-
es of which, upon the industry, the internal and external trade
ulous and prosperous communities, may prove withering and
f not in anticipation counteracted by the vigilant sagacity and
rise of man.

his vast domain, within the limits of the United States, bounded
by the 49th degree of latitude, south by the Gulf of Mexico,
nd west by the Alleghany and Rocky mountains, is in area, as
as can be calculated in round numbers, 1,500,000 square miles,
ntains 960 millions of acres of land, of which nearly one half
e pronounced arable and capable of profitable cultivation, while
e portion of the balance, however sterile in its external appear-
has concealed other and not less valuable elements of mineral
not yet developed. The richer staple articles which give ani-
n to the commerce of the whole world—cotton, rice, sugar, hemp,
bacco, may be considered almost as indigenous to portions of
untry, while its varied soils, fertile as durable, are productive
ost abundant in all the valuable grains and esculent roots which
bute to the comfort and subsistence of man. In the Valley of
ississippi there can never be those apprehensions of starvation
keep the European countries in an annual state of alarm; but as
present so in future years, the deficiencies of other portions of
rld can be supplied from the overflowing granaries of this land
mise.

s artificial, like its natural pastures, are favorable to the success-
sing of every class of domestic animals, from the noble Arabian
laborious, enduring mule—from the varied races of horned cat-
hich have expelled from their ranges the bear and the buffalo,

to the wool-growing sheep, and the inestimable hog—the animal wh by the lights of chemistry, in the conversion of its lard into oil, threatened to supersede the whale of the Pacific and the olive-tre Italy.

"The country drained by the Mississippi and its tributaries is third as large as Asia; it is little less than half the size of Europe, is very near as large as the European empire of Russia. Franc but one-seventh of its area, and the old Thirteen States about sixth. Compared with the present condition of New England and Middle States, it could sustain, in similar wealth, prosperity and c fort, 60,000,000 of inhabitants: a population, however, of 230 to square mile—similar to that of Great Britain—would give 345,000, of human beings, equal to one-half of the world.

"This estimate of the capacity of this favored region of the wo will not be considered extravagant, when it is recollected that m parts of Europe contain from three hundred to three hundred twenty, and some of the provinces of China from four hundred fifty to six hundred to the square mile.

"The population of the Valley, by the census of 1840, was 8,434,7 it is now estimated at ten millions, and its increase for the ten ye preceding was at the rate of 80 per cent. The value of the produ of the same year were calculated at $750,095,920; the descend trade of the Mississippi at $120,000,000, and the ascending tr at $100,000,000, making an aggregate of $220,000,000, o $30,000,000 less than the whole export and import trade of the Uni States.

"The population of New Orleans (the commercial city throu which this vast trade flows, and by which it is nourished and riched) has within the period of ten years more than doubled; the census, which in 1802 showed a population of 10,000 of Fre and Spanish Creoles, in 1840 exhibits 102,193.

"The exports of this Western Emporium in the three great sta of cotton, sugar, and tobacco, show 984,616 bales of cotton in 1844 against 490,495 in 1835–6; 81,249 hogsheads of tobacco in 1843 against 41,634 in 1835–6; and 104,501 hogsheads and 10,561 barr sugar, and 17,094 hogsheads and 94,451 barrels of molasses in 1844 against 40,526 hogsheads and 4,092 barrels of sugar, and 11,284 ho heads and 48,104 barrels molasses in 1840–41: showing the expo of cotton and tobacco to have doubled in ten years, and that of su and molasses in five years.

"In 1844–5 there were 1682 arrivals and departures of shi barks, brigs and schooners, and 2530 steamers, against 1643 of former class and 2187 of the latter in 1842–3; exhibiting an increa in three years of 39 arrivals and departures of ships, brigs, &c., a 343 steamers. This small increase of foreign tonnage is to accounted for in the commercial economy of employing a larger cl of ships than those hitherto used, and probably in the fact that m of the western produce which used to find its outlet by the Bali now seeks a market by the Lakes to the northern ports.

"Sixty years ago, this vast domain (if we except the French a Spanish settlements on the coasts of Louisiana, and which did number a population exceeding 20,000 souls) was occupied exc

ely by wandering tribes of Indians, whose population, though vari-
ly estimated, did not exceed 250,000, and whose trade in furs and
ns was restricted to the limited wants of the savage. At this early
iod, however, such was the sagacity of the Indian in estimating
tance, that few descended the Mississippi; while all the trading
hs of the different tribes, many of which may still be traced, were
the direction of the South Atlantic, toward Augusta and
arleston.

'In those days these cities participated largely in the Indian trade,
l before the revolution, Charleston, as an exporting and importing
y, maintained an equality with Boston, New York and Philadel-
a, which equality was never lessened until after the adoption of
Federal Constitution, when the greater capital and unequal ex-
nditure of the revenue, began to centralize trade in the northern
the prejudice of the southern ports.

'This vast domain, so highly favored with the abundant gifts of
ovidence, and with a population whose enterprise and energies
daily stimulated to new and alluring prospects on yet unexplored
rizons, has but one drawback to check its rapid strides to commer-
l empire, and that is in having but one natural outlet to the high-
y of nations.

'The Mississippi discharges in a low southern latitude, in a cli-
te unfavorable, for four months in the season, to the health of
inhabitants of a more northern latitude, and equally deleterious
its influences on the meats and produce of the interior, which, for
want of a market at all seasons accessible, have to be held in large
antities in deposit.

'Even that which merely passes *in transitu* to some other port,
been known to suffer in the warm season of the summer, particu-
ly pork, lard, beef, bacon, tobacco, tallow, butter, flour, and the
ious grains; and if from necessity held over for another year, is
tain of deterioration, if not entire destruction.

'The mouths of the Mississippi are in the Mexican Gulf, and in
ne of war may be easily blockaded by a superior naval force.
ne outlet of this gulf is by a circuitous and hazardous voyage
ough the keys and currents of the Florida and Bahama banks and
fs, subjecting the whole trade of the Valley, whether destined
astwise or to foreign ports, to great loss of time *in transitu*, extra
zards and exposures, and heavier charges for insurance and
ight, all of which is a tax upon the whole trade of the Valley.

'In the early settlement of the country, when the produce raised
the pioneer was consumed by the emigrant who followed on his
ck, and when successive waves of population, who had to be fed,
rnished home and profitable markets to those who had proceeded
these new countries, this impediment to cheap and rapid com-
nication to the markets of consumption, was not felt or appre-
ted. But now that the Valley of the Mississippi contains ten
tes, three territories, and ten millions of population, with an ex-
rt of productions seeking foreign markets, at the present low
preciation estimated at $60,000,000, the subject of the cheapest,
st certain, and most expeditious avenues of inter-communication
th all parts of the United States and of the world must necessarily

become one of grave and deep consideration to every individual
this western community. Other interests, however, have not c
an indifferent eye on the vast and increasing commerce of the M
sissippi Valley, but have been in their efforts untiring to open n
passes into this land of promise.

"The sagacity of a Clinton at an early period projected a ca
communication (which has in its result more than realized the m
sanguine calculations of that distinguished statesman), between
Hudson and the Lakes and the north-western States.

"Under the influence of that most triumphant example have
of these States projected canal and railway connections between
western waters and those inland seas on which they border. All
these projects are in successful progress, some of them complet
thus diverting the trade of the upper Mississippi in a north-east
direction to the city of New York, which, in its magical strides duri
the last twenty years to commercial power, demonstrates the va
of a trade which is only in its beginning.

"The State of Pennsylvania, with a like zeal, has constructed
series of railroads and canals connecting the Susquehanna and D
laware with the Alleghany, the favorable influences of which Pit
burgh and Philadelphia are already realizing.

"Maryland and Virginia are both on their march by railroads a
canals to the West, and both seeking to tap the Ohio and divert
currents of wealth to the Chesapeake, and in anticipation, both Ba
more and Richmond are now exhibiting strong evidences of a res
citating and animated commerce.

"Boston, though the last to commence, has, through the pow
of her capital and the acknowledged energy of her citizens, been
first to complete a gigantic work, prostrating rocks and mountai
and intercepting the canals of New York at Albany—has recover
perfect and uninterrupted, her communication with the Lakes a
the extreme portions of the Union.

"South Carolina, at an early period, had her attention directed
a railroad communication with the Ohio, but, unsustained in t
enterprise to the end contemplated, she has since more wisely co-o
rated with her enterprising neighbor, Georgia, to complete a comm
nication with the navigable waters of the Tennessee, with the co
dent hope which the call of this Convention would seem not to d
appoint, that the people of the West will not rest satisfied until t
great work is extended, and like its rivers made to branch throu
every part of the vast Valley of the Mississippi, and like its onwa
population find no *termini short of the Pacific.*

"Your committee, therefore, in reporting on the interesting subj
which has been referred to their investigation, feel encouraged to fi
that they have not to develope or explain a new project, or to gro
through all the uncertainties and speculations in a new theory, to
force its importance and its truth.

"The project of a railroad from the Atlantic to the Mississi
valley, is no new conception. It was long since presented to pub
notice by Mr. Elliott, of South Carolina, in an able article in the th
Southern Review; and at a more recent period was recommended
that veteran in the military service who continues to manifest his z

n the great enterprise by taking his seat in this Convention. This nterprise, with more enlarged views, and in a more comprehensive, nough more tangible form, now commands the favorable action of his intelligent Convention; in the character, and resources, and vants of the country through which various branch roads may be nade to traverse; in the prominent points on the Mississippi, Tennessee, Cumberland and Alabama rivers, and on the Atlantic, which ney will connect in close communion; and in the several physical eatures of the routes, demonstrating the practicability of them all.

"The main track of road from the sea-board passes along its hole line, through a mild parallel of latitude, not interrupted by ne floods of spring, or by the ice and snows of winter. With the rojected branches, it intersects the cotton-growing regions of Geor-ia, Alabama, Tennessee and Mississippi. It demonstrates, in one irection, on East Tennessee, the Switzerland of America, and on ne western Valley of Virginia, beckoning to the Ancient Dominion participate in the enterprise, and on many interior districts, rich agricultural and mineral resources, but so secluded from all ave-ues of communication with markets, as to remain undeveloped.

"These roads locate their own highways of interior trade, as they riginate the business that sustains them, and at the various *termini* roposed, they bring into intimate connection the ancient cities of harleston and Augusta, with the modern cities of Macon, Knox-ille, and Nashville, (and perhaps in the event, Mobile and New rleans),—with Natchez, Grand Gulf, Vicksburg, and the modern Memphis of the American Nile; a new city, but so imposing in its idway position and its commercial relations, as already to number 0,000 inhabitants, and so accessible to steamers as to have attracted ne attention of the General Government as a suitable site for a naval epot.

"The preparation made at this point for the naval defenses of the ountry, still stronger enforces the importance of these roads for ilitary purposes, in giving increased facilities for the transportation troops and the materials of war; in enabling one army to defend vo frontiers, and one crew to serve two fleets, as an enemy may ther threaten the Atlantic or the Gulf frontier. It gives us as the asis of operations the chord, while the enemy has the arch of the rcle to move on in his demonstrations of attack. In fine, by the agical power of steam, it gives wings to our arms, and enables us our combinations to anticipate the movements of the enemy, and realize the great problem of military success—'*Concentration of rce and celerity of movement.*'"

Art. IV.—HOME AND FOREIGN GRAIN MARKET.

The failure of the grain crop in European countries and consequent stimulus afforded to operations in our own, are events which turally enough attract the attention of all. We should be devoid that sympathy which characterizes us as men, did we not experience some emotions of pain in contemplating a prospect of misery

and want staring in the face so many millions of our fellow-beings. It is not possible at such a time to refrain our acknowledgments, as a nation, for that better fortune which has attended us, and for those rich and rare gifts with which we have been crowned. A season of unusual plenty has supplied our most ample wants, and enabled us to approach the world beyond with a full and overflowing hand. Nothing more than this could satisfy an American citizen of the excellence of the institutions under which he lives, and the unparalelled and inexhaustible resources of the soil he cultivates.

In every densely populated country, the most intense solicitude has ever been manifested in relation to the means of supplying, beyond the reach of contingency, an amount of bread-stuffs sufficient to meet and satisfy the necessary wants. That which is emphatically "the staff of life" must, beyond question, occupy a position of first importance. The destitution and famine which sometimes have prevailed in such countries, too fearfully illustrate the truth of this. If we take up the Statute Book of Great Britain, we shall have a forcible commentary upon the text. What legislation after legislation has she not resorted to? what schemes and policies adopted in hope, and abandoned in despair? what labors of statesmen—what devices of ministry—and all directed to the one end! Hundreds of years have passed away since her labors were begun, and has she arrived any nearer to their consummation? The most lamentable ignorance and short-sightedness has prevailed in relation to interests the most important of all. Her best minds are beginning reluctantly to confess it, and the people—the people, for whom all of this labor was undertaken, as it is pretended—are demanding now, wherein they have been benefited, and what the complicated and arbitrary provisions of the corn laws have achieved for the nation?

Great Britain presents at this moment a melancholy instance of excessive legislation—of laws based upon wrong principles and of ruinous tendency—of land proprietors sinking beneath their own devices, and of a population—a working and a toiling population—reduced to extremities of suffering and want.

We shall briefly consider the history of British policy in relation to the subject under discussion, furnish statistics of British corn trade, and exhibit the past and the present, as well as the future prospects of our own country, in the same connection.

The first corn system adopted in Great Britain was that of non-exportation. This prevailed for three hundred years prior to the reign of Henry VI. It was not seen here, that to prevent the exportation of a commodity, was to prevent its production above the lowest wants of a country, and increase the danger of famine. In 1436, exportation was tolerated, but only with severe restrictions; and importation, which had hitherto been free, began now to be saddled with conditions. In 1562, exportation was placed on a footing more disadvantageous to it, by requiring the price to be four shillings per quarter higher at home, before it was allowed. In 1571, a duty on grain exports was adopted. This proved so unpopular in time, to the agriculturists themselves, that in 1672 it was taken off, and substituted by one more favorable to exportation.

A new system was now introduced utterly at war with those of a previous date. By the statute 1 William and Mary, a bounty was actually held out to exporters of five shillings on every quarter of wheat, while the price continued at or below forty-eight shillings: so singular has been the fluctuation.

For a number of years, under the operation of this system, there were large exports of grain, which, in ten years, drew upon the bounty fund to the amount of £1,515,000. Even this, however, did not have the effect desired. The severe and almost prohibitory restrictions on imports, adopted in an act of 1670, and the great augmentation of population, reduced largely the excess of exportation, and occasioned another important change in the policy of the country. A statute of 1773, admitted foreign wheat free of duty, whenever the price was above forty-eight shillings per quarter. The prices in 1772-3-4, were fifty, fifty-one, and fifty-two shillings.

The following table exhibits the position of Great Britain in relation to the corn trade, for the hundred years preceding the year 1800:

WHEAT AND FLOUR EXPORTED AND IMPORTED FROM 1697 TO 1800—(WINCHESTER MEASURE).

Years.	Wheat and Flour exported.	Foreign Wheat and Flour imported.	Years.	Wheat and Flour exported.	Foreign Wheat and Flour imported.	Years.	Wheat and Flour exported.	Foreign Wheat and Flour imported.
England	Qrs.	Qrs.	England.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Gt. Brit.	Qrs.	Qrs.
1697	14,699	400	1732	202,058		1766	164,939	11,020
1698	6,857	845	1733	427,199	7	1767	5,071	497,905
1699	557	486	1734	498,196	6	1768	7,433	349,268
1700	49,056	5	1735	153,343	9	1769	49,892	4,378
1701	98,324	1	1736	118,170	16	1770	75,449	34
1702	90,230		1737	461,602	32	1771	10,089	2,510
1703	166,615	50	1738	580,596	2	1772	6,959	25,474
1704	90,313	2	1739	279,542	5,423	1773	7,637	56,857
1705	96,185		1740	54,390	7,568	1774	15,928	289,149
1706	188,332	77	1741	45,417	40	1775	91,037	560,998
1707	74,155		1742	293,260	1	1776	210,664	20,578
1708	83,406	86	1743	371,431	2	1777	87,686	233,323
1709	169,680	1,562	1744	231,984	2	1778	141,070	106,394
1710	13,924	400	1745	324,839	6	1779	292,261	5,039
1711	76,949		1746	130,646		1780	294,059	3,915
1712	145,191		1747	266,907		1781	103,021	159,866
1713	176,227		1748	543,387	385	1782	145,152	80,695
1714	174,821	16	1749	629,049	382	1783	51,934	584,183
1715	166,490		1750	947,602	279	1784	89,288	216,947
1716	74,926		1751	661,416	3	1785	132,685	110,863
1717	22,954		1752	429,279		1786	205,466	51,463
1718	71,800		1753	299,609		1787	120,536	59,339
1719	127,762	20	1754	356,270	201	1788	82,971	148,710
1720	83,084		Gt. Brit.			1789	140,014	112,656
1721	81,633		1755	237,466		1790	30,892	222,557
1722	178,880		1756	102,752	5	1791	70,626	469,056
1723	157,720		1757	11,545	141,562	1792	300,278	622,417
1724	245,865	148	1758	9,234	20,353	1793	76,629	490,398
1725	204,413	12	1759	227,641	162	1794	155,048	327,902
1726	142,183		1760	393,614	3	1795	18,839	313,793
1727	30,315		1761	441,956		1796	24,679	879,200
1728	3,817	74,574	1762	295,385	56	1797	54,525	461,767
1729	18,993	40,315	1763	429,538	72	1798	59,782	396,731
1730	93,971	76	1764	396,857	1	1799	39,362	463,185
1731	130,025	4	1765	167,196	104,547	1800	22,013	1,264,520

The liberal toleration of grain imports by the statute of 1773, gave great dissatisfaction to the landed interests, who had weight enough soon to procure its modification, by raising the scale when imports would be allowed, with a nominal duty, from forty-eight to fifty-four shillings. The bounty upon exports was still continued. Thirteen years after (1804), the agriculturists cried out again, and raised the scale of imports still higher, viz.: to 66 shillings, when every kind of soil was at once taken into cultivation, even the poorest. Under this exclusive system, corn rose in 1814 to an unprecedented height, and millions of bushels poured into the kingdom, which occasioned new alarm to the landholders. A monstrous bill was prepared, which, had it been adopted in Parliament, would have proved absolutely ruinous to the interests of the poorer classes. Its only object could have been to keep up the prices reached in 1814. Wheat, when under sixty-four shillings the quarter at home, was to be charged with a duty of twenty-four shillings; when it exceeded eighty-six shillings, the duty only then was to be one shilling, or nominal. The nation, almost by one accord, rose up in condemnation of so odious a measure, and the ministers had not face enough to press it into operation.

In 1815, Parliament having examined leading agriculturists, and they being unanimous in the sentiment that the inferior lands would have to be thrown out of cultivation under the law of 1804, agreed upon a new bill. By this, corn for home consumption was absolutely forbidden to be entered from foreign ports, unless when wheat was selling at eighty shillings per quarter in England, and other grain in proportion. This was intended to raise prices up to eighty shillings, and render them permanent at that. But the signal disappointment of these grinding and greedy interests is exhibited in the following table, taken from McCulloch, vol. i. p. 505.*

* Strange to say, a protest by ten Peers, and, of course, landholders, against this measure, was entered, in the House of Lords. This protest was drawn up by Lord Grenville, and went against all restriction whatever in the corn trade, arguing the question on high principles. We extract the 2d, 3d, 4th, and 5th grounds of dissent.

"II. Because we think that the great practical rule, of leaving all commerce unfettered, applies *more peculiarly*, and on still stronger grounds of justice as well as policy, to the corn trade than to any other. Irresistible, indeed, must be that necessity which could, in our judgment, authorize the legislature to tamper with the sustenance of the people, and to impede the free purchase of that article on which depends the existence of so large a portion of the community.

"III. Because we think that the expectations of ultimate benefit from this measure, are founded on a delusive theory. We cannot persuade ourselves that this law will ever contribute to produce plenty, cheapness, or steadiness of price. So long as it operates at all, its effects must be the opposite of these. *Monopoly is the parent of scarcity, of dearness, and of uncertainty.* To cut off any of the sources of supply, can only tend to lessen its abundance; to close against ourselves the cheapest market for any commodity, must enhance the price at which we purchase it; and to confine the consumer of corn to the produce of his own country, is to refuse to ourselves the benefit of that provision which Providence itself has made for equalizing to man the variations of climate and of seasons.

"IV. But whatever may be the future consequences of this law at some distant and uncertain period, we see with pain that these hopes must be purchased at the expense of a great and present evil. To compel the consumer to purchase corn dearer at home than it might be imported from abroad, is the immediate practical effect of this law. In this way alone can it operate. Its present protection, its promised extension of agriculture, must result (if at all) from the profits which it creates by keeping up the price of corn to an artificial level. These future benefits are the consequences expected, but, as we confidently believe, erroneously expected, from giving a bounty to the grower of corn, by a tax levied on its consumer.

"Lastly. Because if we could approve of the principle and purpose of this law, we

Average prices of wheat in England and Wales, from 1815 *to* 1824, *inclusive.*

£	s.	d.			£	s.	d.		
1815....3	4	4	64s.	per quarter.	1820....3	7	11	68s.	per quarter.
1816....3	15	10	76s.	" "	1821....2	16	2	56s.	" "
1817....4	14	9	95s.	" "	1822....2	4	7	44s.	" "
1818....4	4	1	84s.	" "	1823....2	13	5	53s.	" "
1819....3	13	0	73s.	" "	1824....3	4	0	64s.	" "

To remedy the new evil of exceedingly fluctuating, and at times low prices, Parliament was again set to work—so strange was the persistence in a course in its nature radically wrong. Importation was, as usual, looked upon as the great evil to be provided against; and the statute 3 George IV., 1822, loaded it with heavy duties, whenever the prices, above seventy shillings at home, appeared likely to stimulate it. But prices, to the regret of agriculturists, remained down provokingly under seventy shillings.

In 1825, wheat was allowed to be imported from British America without any regard to the home prices; a step too liberal to be continued for more than one year.

In 1826, there was a large deficiency in production, and the sovereign was authorized to admit 500,000 quarters foreign wheat, on favorable terms.

In 1827, a general dissatisfaction was exhibited in every quarter, in relation to the corn system. It was discovered to have only been one continued source of evil to the nation, and a permanent benefit to none. Right views began for once to be taken on the subject; and Mr. Canning, the minister, prepared to act on a new principle. He was sustained by the Commons; but the Duke of Wellington, in the House of Lords, tacked on a clause to the bill, which defeated it.

The following year, Mr. Charles Grant proposed a measure, which soon after became a law. It was based upon the principles of Mr. Canning (liberal for the times), but in its details was far less advantageous, we conceive, to the interests of the nation. We furnish the scale of duties provided for in this bill, on the article of wheat:

Whenever the home price is			62s.	and under	63s.	per quarter, the duty shall be for every quarter	24s.
Whenever the home price is over			63s.	and under	64s.	" "	23s.
"	"	"	64s.	"	65s.	" "	22s.
"	"	"	65s.	"	66s.	" "	21s.
"	"	"	66s.	"	67s.	" "	20s.
"	"	"	67s.	"	68s.	" "	18s.
"	"	"	68s.	"	69s.	" "	16s.
"	"	"	69s.	"	70s.	" "	13s.
"	"	"	70s.	"	71s.	" "	10s.
"	"	"	71s.	"	72s.	" "	6s.
"	"	"	72s.	"	73s.	" "	2s.
"	"	"	73s.	and above		" "	1s.
"	"		under 62s.	and over	61s.	" "	25s.

This tariff of duties continued in operation for many years, and gave way at last to the present sliding scale, as it is termed, which

think that no sufficient foundation has been laid for its details. The evidence before us, unsatisfactory and imperfect as it is, seems to us rather to disprove than to support the propriety of the high price adopted as the standard of importation, and the fallacious mode by which that price is to be ascertained. And on all these grounds we are anxious to record our dissent from a measure so precipitate in its course, and, as we fear, so injurious in its consequences."

Sir Robert Peel and the British Parliament have been struggling to maintain against the crying wants of the nation. A proposition to modify it was voted down by an immense majority, only last year, and the Premier declared that no essential modification should ever take place. Events, however, in that country, are now giving a new aspect to the question; and there is no power, which, we think, can be strong enough to resist the influence of popular sentiment.

We extract from the British tariff, as now existing, its provisions in relation to the corn trade.

Wheat, if imported from Foreign Countries.

Whenever the average price at home, made up and published in the manner provided by law shall be

Under 51*s.* the duty per quarter shall be.....£1 0*s.* 0*d.*
Over 51*s.* and under 52*s.* the duty per quarter shall be.....0 19*s.* 0*d.*
Over 52*s.* " " 53*s.* " " " 0 18*s.* 0*d.*

And decreasing progressively 1*s.* duty for each shilling in price to 73*s.* when the duty shall be 1*s.* and continue at that whatever the elevation in price.

In relation to Canadian wheat, a difference is made, which has, to some extent, stimulated our operations with Canada, and occasioned that province to conduct for us our foreign corn trade. Wheat, if the produce of, and imported from, Canada, is allowed to enter English markets at a duty of one shilling the quarter; and flour, at four and one-eighth pence the cwt.

Had England allowed the grain market to regulate itself, she would never have experienced those reverses which have grown out of her unwise legislation; corn would not have ranged from 125*s.* the quarter in 1812, to 38*s.* 1*d.* in 1822, 68*s.* in 1825, 39*s.* in 1835, and we scarcely know what in 1845; but she would have had a constant supply, and a scale of prices which would render prosperous both her producers and her consumers. We may suppose that these dear-bought lessons will soon have their proper effect, and that a free grain market will take the place of all restrictions upon either exports or imports. In this way, when there is an expected scarcity, grain will be thrown into her ports from every quarter; and when Providence has abundantly crowned her farmers, they will be able to appear to advantage in foreign markets, should it ever happen that they can more than supply their own.

The increasing population of Great Britain, and the vast amount of it engaged in manufacturing purposes, every year becoming proportionately greater, will, in despite of the improvements in agriculture there, and the supplies which the Irish market may afford, render that country in all future time an immense grain importer. It will be in vain for her to look at home; willingly or not, she must depend to a very great extent upon the world without, for those supplies which are indispensable to her existence. For the fourteen years ending in 1842, her imports were as follows, of foreign and colonial wheat:

1829.....	bushels,	11,572,608	1836.....	bushels,	240,856
1830.....	"	13,822,776	1837.....	"	1,979,176
1831.....	"	12,053,920	1838.....	"	14,787,800
1832.....	"	3,062,040	1839.....	"	21,693,784
1833.....	"	672,208	1840.....	"	19,201,488
1834.....	"	519,792	1841.....	"	21,182,072
1835.....	"	228,400	1842.....	"	23,917,160

Making an annual average import of 9,625,378 bushels foreign, and 727,126 colonial. In 1843, the import was 920,600 quarters foreign wheat, and 98,100 cwts. flour, 19,630 quarters colonial wheat, and 294,180 cwts. flour. In 1844, 1,068,570 quarters foreign wheat, 306,000 cwts. flour, and 44,470 quarters colonial wheat, and 774,800 cwts. flour. The average import of the five years preceding 1843, was 20,000,000 bushels wheat and flour. In 1844, the crop was good, and the deficiency felt was only 11,267,000 bushels. In 1845, the last estimate, by a paper of high standing, fixes the enormous deficit of 70,000,000 bushels, supposing that the last annual average consumption, 170,000,000 bushels will be maintained, and the crop to have failed to the extent that it is stated, viz.: two-thirds of the average, neither of which, however, is altogether probable. At all events, the wants of the present year may be stated as out of all proportion greater than of any preceding one; and the question is, how shall these be supplied, and in what manner will the United States be affected by them?

Mr. Peel, not long since, endeavored to make it appear in Parliament, that the United States were not a grain growing country; but what was policy in the Premier to state, is too remote from fact even to be repeated. Every year exhibits the increasing capacity of our western granaries; and as the tide of population continues to flow in, and new and productive soils are taken into cultivation, we shall see results exhibited, which will prove that our grain market can compete, under a fair system, with that of any other portion of the world.

It has been over and over stated, and sometimes from high sources, that we can only compete with the pauper and serf labor of northern Europe, in seasons of extraordinary scarcity; and that, ordinarily, prices with us, and freights, which we must pay, go entirely to exclude our produce from English markets. We have no confidence whatever in these calculations and estimates. Our convictions are, that the labor and the enterprise of free citizens, in an abundant country, and without grinding taxation, can take care of themselves, and meet and triumph over opposition throughout all the world. We have seen this exhibited in many branches of our industry, and there is no ground for exception in this. Allow a fair trial by removing all obstructions, and we are sure of the result. If it be true that prices are usually lower on the continent of Europe than they are with us, the fact will only stimulate our exertions. Wheat can be afforded in this country, and pay a fair profit to its producers in years of abundance, at prices much lower than any previous quotation. Ten years ago, and our cotton planters would have thought a reduction of a few cents in the prices of their staple, likely to ruin them entirely. Many would have replied, had you interrogated them, that cotton could not be grown in this country at any considerable reduction in prices: yet cotton has been grown, and is still growing beyond all precedent and all expectation, at one-half the price in market which it found ten years ago! Even the poorest soils yet continue its production. The Hon. Dixon H. Lewis stated in Congress, that cotton could be grown profitably in Alabama for five cents. At all events, it will be conceded that many, even at its present value, find

cotton-growing no very bad business. Let every one apply these facts to the grain market, and draw his own conclusions: for us, we have no reason to doubt. We say to the grain-growers in every part of the States, go to work actively and cheerfully; develop your soils and reap your harvests, with a perfect surety that, with the staff of life in your hands, you will ever be looked up to with interest, and always find willing buyers and remunerating prices.

The chief grain-growing regions, from which large supplies have in all past time been exported, are Poland, Russia, Denmark, Germany, and the Black sea. We shall make a few remarks upon the character of each, and then show to what extent G. Britain has been dependent upon them and other European sections of minor importance.

Dantzic, as a port, has afforded an outlet for Polish grain; and McCulloch estimates that 350,000 to 450,000 quarters of wheat might be obtained annually from that source. The Dantzic wheat is represented as of superior quality—its "high mixed" sustaining no injury from a comparison with the best English. It is preferred to wheat from the lower Elbe at an advance of 20s. the quarter.

Russia has exported wheat, rye, oats, and meal. She sent to England alone, in 1831, near 500,000 quarters of wheat, but its quality is very indifferent, being small-grained, coarse, brown, and badly prepared; well calculated for keeping, however, in the granary.

Denmark labors under the same disadvantage, as to the quality of grain produced, and her exports have not been very considerable.

Hamburg is the centre of a large grain trade. Corn from the Baltic and the valley of the Elbe, is deposited there, and also from Bohemia; but, according to McCulloch, the quality is far inferior to Dantzic wheat. In 1830, England received 217,700 quarters hence. Amsterdam has also afforded considerable supplies.

Odessa, on the Black sea, does all the export business of southern Europe in grain. It is brought there from Polish provinces, mostly by land carriage, a mode of conveyance said to be not very expensive. The quality of wheat is inferior, and commands 8s. a quarter less than British, in the London market. The danger of becoming heated in its passage through warm climates, checks the amount of business done in this grain.

France has never been able to do more than supply her own wants, and she has been resorting to non-exportation and importation systems with little real advantage. The same may be said of Spain, which, though capable of large production, has not yet been able to reach it—her lands being susceptible of abundant development.

In 1831 G. Britain imported from Russia 464,584 quarters, Prussia 296,286, Germany 218,507, Spain 154,671, Italy 253,295, British colonies 218,327, United States 463,418. In 1832 she took from the U. States 55,050 bushels wheat, and 95,868 barrels flour; in 1839, 6,003 bushels wheat, 167,582 barrels flour; in 1840, 607,108 bushels wheat, 605,778 barrels flour; in 1842, 143,330 bushels wheat, 204,896 barrels flour.

The following table, taken from McCulloch's Commercial Dictionary, page 507, will show the amount of grain imported into Great Britain from each of the countries named, from 1801 to 1825, both inclusive—(in Winchester Quarterlies.)

COUNTRIES.	Annual av'r'ge of 25 years.	Annual average wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Do. oats.	Peas & beans.	Indian corn.
Russia	117,902	53,377	9,968	7,112	46,652	785	8
Sweden and Norway	14,397	9,576	960	987	2,446	428	—
Denmark	67,847	16,324	1,123	18,808	30,672	823	97
Prussia	228,584	157,359	5,689	18,718	39,209	7,609	—
Germany	171,103	58,103	5,189	24,839	75,828	7,144	—
The Netherlands	158,078	56,817	1,690	9,500	84,269	5,802	—
France and South of Europe	37,932	24,649	293	1,097	1,953	9,125	816
United States of America	80,712	74,024	2,341	31	3	201	4,022
British North American Colonies	25,627	24,863	—	51	1	697	15
Other Foreign countries, Isle of Man, and Prize Corn	10,363	4,836	1,438	2,194	1,703	151	41
Ireland	865,968	187,438	253	33,331	639,857	4,922	147

In 1841, her imports were—

From Russia.....bushels	498 205	From Belgium.....	228,620
" Sweden.....	4,410	" France	1,643,932
" Denmark	1,915,272	" Italy and Islands ...	901,600
" Prussia.....	7,134,400	" United States	1,107,840
" Germany	5,295,674	" Colonies and other nations.....	3,071,583
" Holland	815,964		

For the present year, her European supplies are likely to be cut off almost entirely. Great scarcity prevails in Holland, so that government has reduced the duty on imports to the smallest point. In Belgium, the same state of things exists. The stock of the Baltic is said to be already in second hands; and the deficiency in Italy will leave nothing from the Black sea.

Of course, all eyes must now be turned upon the United States; and in the remaining pages of this article, we shall confine our attention exclusively to the grain trade, as it has existed with us in the past; exhibit the prospects of that trade, and the home supplies with which it must be sustained.

The census which was taken in 1840, has been proved to be inaccurate in many particulars; but we have seen no objection raised to the grain statistics which it affords. It appears that the crop of that year was 84,000,000 bushels wheat, and near 380,000,000 bushels Indian corn. By other information, we have the following table of production:

	1840.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Wheat, bush.	84,822,272	102,317,344	100,310 856	95,607,000
Barley.....	4,161,504	3,871,623	3,230,721	3,627,000
Oats.....	123,071,341	150,833,607	145,929,666	172,247,000
Rye	18 645,567	22,762,952	24,889,281	26,450,000
Buckwheat..	7,291,743	2,483,480	7,959,410	9,710,000
Corn	377,531,875	441,829,246	496,618,305	427,953,000

For the year 1845, we have not the most reliable information; but the general impression from the best sources is, that the wheat crop will reach the unprecedented yield of 125,000,000 bushels—the State of Michigan alone, with a population of but 400,000, yielding 7,000,000 bushels. Deducting for home consumption 70,000,000 bushels, which, with high prices, will hardly be exceeded, and for seed, there will remain for exportation upward of 40,000,000 bushels wheat. The average exportation of Indian corn for the last fourteen years has been 1,500,000 bushels annually, and we cannot have less for the same purpose the present year.

The following table will show the amount of grain which has been exported from our country in the past, and the sources to which it was attracted.

Account of the quantities of Flour and Grain exported from the United States, from October 1st, 1821, to September 30th, 1831, with the prices of Flour at Philadelphia. and of Wheat and Indian Corn at New York.

Years.	Wheat flour. bbls.	Rye flour. bbls.	Corn meal bbls.	Wheat. bush.	Indian corn. bush.	Price of wheat flour per barrel at Philadel'ia.	Price of wheat per bushel at New York.	Price of Ind. corn per bushel at N. York.
1831	1,805,205	19,049	204,206	405 384	566,761	$— —	$1 19	$0 70
1830	1,225,881	26,298	145,301	45,289	444,190	4 98	0 98	0 57
1829	837,385	34,191	173,775	4,007	897,656	6 35	1 38	0 58
1828	860,809	22,214	174,639	8,906	704,902	5 60	1 8	0 53
1827	865,491	13,345	131,041	22,182	978,664	5 23	0 97	0 65
1826	857,820	14,472	158,625	45,166	505,381	4 65	0 90	0 79
1825	813,906	29,545	187,285	17,960	869 644	5 10	1 4	0 56
1824	996,792	31,879	152,723	20,373	779,297	5 62	1 15	0 47
1823	756,702	25,665	141,501	4,272	749,034	6 82	1 5	0 53
1822	827,865	19,971	148,288	4,418	509,098	6 58	0 90	0 49
1821	1,056,119	23,523	131,669	25,812	607,277	4 78	0 89	0 53

From 1831 to 1843, we have the following, furnished in one of the late numbers of the Merchants' Magazine, by a writer who looks rather despondingly upon the prospects of our grain trade.

Table of Exports of Wheat and Flour to the principal markets, together with the total Exports to all foreign markets, for thirteen consecutive years.

	England.		*Br. American Colonies.*		*Cuba.*	
Years.	Bush. wheat.	Bbls. flour.	Bush. wheat.	Bbls. flour.	Bush. wheat.	Bbls. flour.
1831.....	362,153	865,744	12,505	150,795	....	97,999
1832.....	55,050	95 868	20,777	135,640	....	98,248
1833.....	.....	21,707	31,421	168.127	....	119,197
1834.....	.....	19,487	23,247	134,975	....	102,837
1835.....	.....	5,376	.....	76,405	....	93,511
1836.....	.....	161	2,082	42,300	....	92.390
1837.....	.....	.....	.....	23,316	....	55,537
1838.....	.....	8,295	6,076	29,591	....	79,681
1839.....	6,033	167,582	72,113	149,407	....	90,459
1840.....	607,108	605,778	1,066.604	432,356	788	69,819
1841.....	119,854	205.144	695,389	377 806	....	69,387
1842.....	143,330	204,896	655,503	369,048	4,179	46,846
1843.....	.....	14,214	293,842	190,322	....	29,437
Average..	99,502	170,327	221,498	175,391	382	80,411

	Brazil.		*British West Indies.*		*Tot. Ex. to all For. M'kts.*	
Years.	Bush. wheat.	Bbls. flour.	Bush. wheat.	Bbls. flour.	Bush. wheat.	Bbls. flour.
1831.....	.....	198 870	.....	100,382	408,445	1,806,529
1832.....	.....	103 289	.....	100,167	83,304	864,919
1833.....	.....	259 536	.....	100,057	32,221	955,768
1834.....	.....	152,603	.....	95,816	36.948	835,352
1835.....	.....	161,460	.....	118,307	47,762	779,396
1836.....	.....	118,470	2,062	70,305	2,062	505,400
1837.....	.....	60,480	.....	68,323	17,303	318,719
1838.....	.....	125,275	137	75,524	6,291	448,161
1839.....	.....	177,337	14,129	139,340	96,325	923,151
1840.....	.....	197,823	33,743	232,329	1,720,860	1,897,501
1841.....	16,457	282,406	41,116	246,465	868,585	1,515,817
1842.....	.....	189,317	14,920	237,478	817,958	1,283,602
1843.....	.....	192,454	17,399	170,577	311,685	841,474
Average..	1,266	170,716	9,500	135,005	342,709	997,771

It is to be observed, that during part of this time, a very large portion of wheat entering the British colony of Canada, was intended for the market of the mother country.

Prices in Flour in New York Market, Nov. 1st.

1823....	$7 00 bbl	1831....	$5,75 bbl	1839....	$6,87 bbl.
1824....	5 62 "	1832....	6,00 "	1840....	5,00 "
1825....	5,12 "	1833....	5,68 "	1841....	6,00 "
1826....	5,12 "	1834....	5,12 "	1842....	4,25 "
1827....	5,25 "	1835....	6,25 "	1843....	4,75 "
1828....	7.62 "	1836....	9,50 "	1844....	4,81 "
1829....	5,31 "	1837....	8,50 "	1845....	— "
1830....	5,25 "	1338....	8,50 "		

With these statistics of trade we are compelled to leave the subject for the present, with the expectation of again taking it up at an early period, and with the hope that what we have prepared will have the effect of calling general attention to a matter so interesting, and elicit from others a more full discussion. We extend our pages willingly for this purpose.

ART. V.—NEW ORLEANS AND CHARLESTON.

We mention these cities in connection, and devote a few pages to them in our Review, from the fact of their presenting the contrast of the most ancient and most modern of the South. Strange is it that the sceptre of trade changes so incessantly the hands that wield it. When the Crescent city consisted of a few huts on the low lands of the Mississippi, her sister of the Palmetto State was reveling in the riches of foreign commerce, and in all affluence and prosperity. But now the vision is changed. The noble city on the banks of the Cooper and the Ashley looks back to the past with lingering regret, while the immense valley has thrown down upon New Orleans wealth beyond comparison, and built up a city which will be indeed to the great Father of Rivers, "as London to the Thames, and Paris to the Seine." There can be no jealousies between these cities. New Orleans would see Charleston recover all that she has lost, would greet her as a sister in her advance, and hail her progress with gratulation. The cities of the Southern Atlantic cannot be rivals to those of the Gulf; their sympathies, institutions and destinies are similar. They are allies in every time of danger or of peril.

In 1680 Charleston was built.

"On the spot," says Bancroft, "where opulence now crowds the wharves of the most prosperous mart of our Southern sea-board, among ancient groves that swept down to the rivers' banks, and were covered with the yellow jasmine, which burdened the vernal zephyrs with its perfumes, the cabins of graziers began the city. Long after, the splendid vegetation which environs Charleston, especially the vine, and cedar, and cypress trees, along the broad road which is now Meeting street, delighted the observer by its perpetual verdure."

"In short," says old John Archdale, "out of "Charles-Town for three or four miles called the Broadway, is so delightful a road, and

so pleasantly Green, that I believe no Prince in Europe, by all their art, can make so pleasant a Sight for the whole Year."

In 1731, we have it on the authority of an old historian, "there were 600 houses in Charleston, five handsome churches, and that out of the city were to be found courtly, stately buildings, noble castles," &c.

The city was incorporated in 1783, and had a population in 1820 of 24,780, including suburbs, 37,471, very little, if any, short of its present population.

Its imports in 1723 were £120,000 sterling. From 1720 to 1729, there were 264,488 barrels rice exported; from 1730 to 1739, the rice exported reached 429,425 barrels. For the year 1728, the export was 26,468 barrels. For 1733 we have the following exports: 36,584 barrels rice, 2,802 barrels pitch, 818 barrels turpentine, 8 chests skins, 60 tons lignum vitæ, 20 tons brazilletto wood, 27 tons sassafras.

In 1744, two hundred and thirty vessels were laden at the port of Charleston. The exports for 1748 were 55,000 barrels rice, 39,308 bushels corn, 296,000 oranges, 6,107 bushels peas, 700 bushels potatoes, 1,700 barrels beef, 150 hogs, 3,114 barrels pork, 10,000 barrels tar, turpentine, &c., 134,118 pounds indigo, 200 pounds beaver skins, 141 calf skins, 720 hogsheads deer skins, 1,700 pounds wax, and a large quantity of lumber, amounting in all to £161,365 sterling.

In 1754, the exports reached £240,000 sterling. In 1799 they were $10,554,842; in 1801, $14,304,045. In 1821 the imports amounted to $3,000,000, and the exports to $8,690,539. In 1824 the imports amounted to $2,030,916, and the exports to $7,143,831. The last consisted of $5,605,948 cotton; $1,114,297 rice; $208,570 other domestic articles; $215,016 foreign articles.

Revenue collected from Charleston by the General Government:

1791	$ 534,783
1801	1,119,668
1815	1,408,863
1818	1,245,960

From the commencement of the Federal Government up to 1825, the revenue collected amounted to $22,337,381.

Exports in 1834	$11,119,565
" " 1835	11,224,298
" " 1836	13,489,756
" " 1837	11.138 992
" " 1838	11.017.391
" " 1839	10,318,622
" " 1840	10,036,769

These were the exports of the whole State, almost the entire part passing through Charleston.*

* We have been favored with the following letter in relation to the commerce of Charleston in cotton and rice, which we publish with great pleasure.

Dear Sir:—Herewith you have a memorandum of the crops of cotton and rice of South Carolina for the last five years, by which you will observe that the exports of cotton during the last year exceed that of any previous season 25 per cent. This increase is not to be attributed to any extension of the culture of cotton in the State, but to the railroad facilities, reaching to the very borders of Alabama, diverting from its former channel a large amount of cotton. It may be said that the last season was unusually propitious to the gathering of a large crop in the Atlantic States. This is true, but will not account for any such increase. A twelvemonth of uninterrupted fine weather could not increase the production of this staple in South Carolina more than ten per cent. over the amount of the last 10 years. The only true solution is the increased facilities af-

Value	Rice exports in	1813	$3.021,000
"	"	" 1816	3.555 000
"	"	" 1818	2 262 000
"	"	" 1839	2,460 000
"	"	" 1840	1 942,000
"	"	" 1841	2,001,000

In 1718 Bienville fixed the site of New Orleans. It consisted five years after of a hundred cabins, a wooden warehouse, three dwellings, a sad chapel, and a population of two hundred. It stood its first yellow fever scourge in 1760; lost near a thousand houses by fire in 1778, and had a population of 4,780 in 1785. The Spanish king in 1795 permitted New Orleans to become a depot for American produce. New Orleans came into American hands in 1803, and, as Norman tells us in his sketch, "the grounds which constitute that thriving portion of the town known as the *Second Municipality*, were mostly used as a plantation, the property of a citizen named Gravier."

When the deeds of transfer were signed by the Americans, Barbé, Marbois, Livingston and Monroe, we are told that Mr. Livingston exclaimed with exultation, "We have lived long enough; but this is the noblest work of our lives. The treaty which we have just signed, has not been obtained by art, nor dictated by force. Equally advantageous to the two contracting parties, it will change vast solitudes into flourishing districts. The instruments we have signed will cause no tears to be shed; they prepare ages of happiness for innumerable generations of human creatures."

A work on the "Valley of the Mississippi," affords us the following data, in relation to its navigation.

The first river commerce was conducted in bark canoes; then came the pirogues, batteaux, and nondescripts; afterward the keel boat, of which the following advertisement, in 1797, will give some idea:

"No danger need be apprehended from the enemy, as every person whatever will be under cover, made proof against rifle or musket balls, and convenient port-holes for firing out of. Each of the boats are armed with six pieces, carrying a pound ball, also a number of good muskets, and amply supplied with plenty of ammunition, strongly manned with choice hands, and masters of approved knowledge."

orded by the South Carolina railroad, through its connection with the Georgia railroad, o the planter of Georgia and Alabama, of bringing to a good market like Charleston is crop. And I feel perfectly satisfied, that if links are added to the chain reaching to Memphis upon the Mississippi, in less than two years after its completion the receipts of cotton at Charleston will reach 600,000 bales; to which would be added many thousand dollars worth of the productions of the fruitful Valley of the Mississippi, and which would place again in a prosperous and vigorous state our *alma mater*, dear old Charleston, the Athens of the South. I have unintentionally wandered from my subject.

Yours, &c. E.

J. D. B. De Bow, Esq.

Cotton Exports of South Carolina.

Years	1840–41	1841–42	1842–43	1843–44	1844–45
Bales	230,000	259,000	349,000	301,000	422,000

Rice Crop of South Carolina.

Barrels of 600 lbs.	1840–41	1841–42	1842–43	1843–44	1844–45
	120,000	115,000	125,000	138,000	120,000

The receipts of cotton at Charleston this season, I do not think will go over 360,000 bales, and rice 100,000 barrels.

52

The barge came next, which had sometimes the capacity of a hun dred tons; then the flat-boat; and finally, schooners, brigs, and eve ships, descended the river, never to return.

The first steamers on the Mississippi gave but little satisfaction The year 1812 witnessed their introduction; but in 1816, they ha only begun to stem the upward current successfully. The first reg ular trip down and up the river, was made in 1817. Fulton an French were the first movers in this enterprise. For the four year preceding 1844, the number alone of western steamers lost, ha been stated at two hundred and twenty-five, an average of fifty-si the year.

New Orleans was incorporated in 1804, and had a population i 1810, of 24,552, an increase of three hundred per cent. in seve years. The city, including the fauxbourgs and Lafayette, extend five miles along the banks of the river, and backward to the distanc of half a mile. The population has undergone the following aston ishing changes.

1810.....	8,001	whites.....		16,551	blacks.....		Total	24,552
1815.....	——	"		——	"		"	32,947
1820.....	19,737	"		21,614	"		"	41,350
1835.....	——	"		——	"		"	45,336
1830.....	21,280	"		28,530	"		"	49,826
1840.....	——	"		——	"		"	102,191

Thus having doubled itself within ten years, we might fairly se down the number as 140,000 for 1845, and for 1850 nothing shor of 175,000 or 180,000. The prospects of such a city, in the future it were vain to dwell upon.

The following tables will exhibit as much as anything else th growing prosperity of New Orleans:

I. Cotton and Tobacco—*Exports for the last* 10 *years.*

1835-36.....	490,495	bales.....	41,634 hhds
1836-37.....	588,969	"	35,821 "
1837-38.....	738,313	"	35,555 "
1838-39.....	579,179	"	30,789 "
1839-40.....	949,320	"	40,436 "
1840-41.....	821,288	"	54,667 "
1841-42.....	749,267	"	68.058 "
1842-43.....	1,068,876	"	89 891 "
1843-44.....	895,375	"	81,249 "
1844-45.....	984,616	"	68,679 "

II. Sugar and Molasses—*Exports other than to the West.*

	Sugar hhds.	bbls.	Molasses hhds.	bbls.
1840-41.....	40,526.....	4,092.....	11,284.....	48,10
1841-42.....	29,334.....	2,232.....	9,314.....	57.16
1842-43.....	66,044.....	2,280.....	12 366.....	66,90
1843-44.....	34,395.....	1,544.....	3,409.....	42 96
1844-45.....	104,561.....	10,561.....	17,094.....	94,41

III. *Value of Produce from the Interior, received in the year ending Aug.* 31, 184

Apples.....	$53,630	Buffalo Robes	95,75
Bacon	906,790	Cotton.....	23,501,71
Bagging.....	1,113,240	Corn	424,74
Bale Rope.....	338,000	Cheese.....	78,18
Beans	28,024	Candles.....	15,51
Butter.....	127,216	Cider.....	1,15
Beeswax	65,880	Coal	105,37
Beef	253,576	Dried Apples and Peaches..	4,46

Feathers	$135,075	Pork	$2,551,172
Flaxseed	18,539	Porter and Ale	420
Flour	2,134,248	Packing Yarn	5,590
Furs	850,000	Skins	60,860
Hemp	462,740	Shot	64,575
Hides	147,329	Soap	16,709
Hay	86,165	Staves	70,000
Iron, pig	6,210	Sugar	9,000,000
Lard	1,787,211	Spanish Moss	11,469
Leather	44,964	Tallow	133,936
Lime, Western	6,233	Tobacco	3,697,390
Lead	1,627,911	Twine	13,057
Molasses	1,260,000	Vinegar	1,968
Oats	100,963	Whiskey	781,206
Onions	14,998	Window Glass	12,284
Oils	200,192	Wheat	129,518
Peach Brandy	690	Other various articles	4,500,000
Potatoes	80,669		

Total—1845	$57,199,122
1844	60,094,716
1843	53,728,054
1842	45,716,045

Imports of Coffee into New Orleans from all Foreign Ports, from January, 1834, to January, 1845, compiled from the records of the Custom House.

January.	Pounds.	Bags.	Value.
1834	15,240,610	95,253	$1,941,196
1835	22,962,044	143,510	2,615,095
1836	15,984,973	99,906	1,900,268
1837	17,077,461	106,733	1,745,945
1838	21,708,144	135,668	2,082,290
1839	28,889,824	180,560	2,731,824
1840	21,188,963	132,430	2,055,308
1841	34,235,155	213,969	3,290,739
1842	21,155,854	132,224	1,628,495
1843	30,162,941	188,518	2,140,723
1844	27,757,886	167,237	1,773,139
Total	256,373,155	1,596,027	$23,904,901

NOTE.—Each bag of Coffee is averaged at 160 lbs.

FOREIGN MERCHANDISE—Direct Imports of Coffee, Sugar and Salt, for three years, from September 1st to August 31st.

	1844-45.	1843-44.	1842-43
Coffee, Havana, ...bags	4,094	59,857	60,188
Coffee, Rio, ...bags	167,669	161,092	86,426
Sugar, Havana, ...boxes	3,473	19,153	2,233
Salt, Liverpool, ...sacks	361,486	309,350	239,497
Salt, Turk's Island, &c. ..bush.	518,407	309,659	129,590

Comparative Arrivals, Exports, and Stocks of Cotton and Tobacco at New Orleans, for ten years—from 1st September to 31st August.

YEARS.	COTTON—BALES.			TOBACCO—HOGSHEADS		
	Arrivals.	Exports.	Stocks.	Arrivals.	Exports.	Stocks.
1844-45	779,236	984,616	7,556	71,493	68,679	7,673
1843-44	910,854	895,375	12,934	89,435	81,949	4,859
1842-43	1,099,642	1,088,870	4,700	92,509	89,891	4,873
1841-42	740,155	749,267	4,428	67,555	68,059	2,255
1840-41	822,870	821,228	14,490	53,170	54,667	2,758
1839-40	954,445	949,320	17,867	43,827	40,436	4,409
1838-39	578,514	579,179	10,308	28,153	30,780	1,994
1837-38	742,790	738,313	9,570	37,568	35,556	3,834
1836-37	605,813	589,969	20,678	28,501	35,821	3,557
1835-36	495,442	490,495	4,586	50,556	43,099	10,456

IMPORTS INTO NEW ORLEANS FROM THE INTERIOR, FOR TEN YEARS,

From the 1st September to the 31st August, in each year.

ARTICLES.	1845-6.	1844-5.	1843-4.	1842-3.	1841-2.	1840-1.	1839-40.	1838-9.	1837-8.	1836-7
Apples, ··bbls.	26,775	26,515	43,969	67,803	26,443	27,244	24,387	6,724	27,561	18,85
Bacon, as-casks.	25,219	12,892	19,563	16,568	13,505	11,231	7,350	13,648	11,715	8,13
Do. Hams,hds.	12,092	8,358	19,070	13,588	9,220	6,111	4,412	6,249	5,565	6,49
Do. in bulk,lbs.	492,700	350,000	1,205,221	1,453,798	1,288,109	2,593,057	1,117,987	1,501,200	985,250	1,492,87
Bagging, ··pcs.	96,601	111,324	100,216	89,721	60,307	70,976	66,898	49,697	48,364	30,44
Bale Rope coils	56,678	67,600	82,684	80,932	63,307	69,613	47,970	62,692	61,005	21,25
Beans, ···bbls.	16,585	7,006	7,619	8,878	10,993	14,281	2,026	405	4,015	5,51
Butter, ···kegs	44,172	30,319	18,831	18,530	11,791	14,074	10,429	7,557	11,967	7,36
Butter, ···bbls.	1,494	396	500	894	284	693	790	429	279	19
Beeswax, bbls.	1,200	1,464	1,911	985	343	306	182	155	117	25
Beeswax,··lbs.	4,920	····	510	2,677	3,300	16,069	10,573	4,250	7,963	1,80
Beef, bbls&trcs	62,231	32,674	49,363	17,549	17,455	33,262	10,843	10,773	6,153	9,85
Beef, dried,lbs.	98,200	58,200	55,610	51,400	60,812	70,100	39,150	38,090	44,050	130,64
Buff.Robes pks	1,031	1,915	5,445	5,135	2,122	2,587	5,447	4,055	2,929	4,81
Cotton—bales	La. and Mi.,	765,315	688,244	627,789	824,045	583,328	677,343	747,894	469,231	568,406	443,30
	Lake, ·····	14,276	19,533	13,234	14,280	8,967	5,163	14,960	12,156	13,836	11,64
	N.Ala.&Te-	222,677	198,246	169,334	191,410	118,629	118,122	155,466	69,347	124,539	132,08
	Arkansas,··	34,878	23,103	21,835	30,511	16,734	11,149	13,767	7,003	11,989	7,10
	Mobile, ····	6,356	12,123	47,596	10,687	4,565	5,381	15,649	16,768	23,301	7,65
	Florida, ····	5,884	12,830	12,916	3,381	2,831	731	2,727	1,080	5,437	1,05
	Texas, ·····	4,249	25,159	18,170	15,328	5,101	4,481	3,992	2,929	3,232	9,97
Corn Meal,bbls.		3,905	7,917	3,769	5,415	6,023	2,214	1,447	3,092	3,109	2,99
Corn in ears. do		358,573	139,686	165,354	255,058	240,675	168,050	152,965	161,918	270,224	194,01
Corn, shld.sacks		1,166,120	390,964	360,052	427,552	334,709	268,557	278,358	238,795	177,751	369,08
Cheese, ···bxs.		57,392	39,091	12,583	3,502	2,710	1,852	428	319	510	20
Candles, ··bxs.		10,461	5,170	3,913	1,201	3,593	425	390	34	800	2
Cider, ····bbls.		135	385	1,419	1,026	1,130	544	524	184	1,627	75
Coal, west'n.do		262,800	281,000	227,788	255,568	140,582	221,233	99,915	94,362	99,220	61,11
Drd Peaches,do		137	474	1,112	718	863	483	18	32	37	23
Dr'd Apples,do		930	1,758	899	968	1,115	1,041	740	····	35	79
Flaxseed,··tcs.		823	2,181	4,273	13,480	863	742	723	316	541	1,22
Flour, ····bbls.		837,985	533,312	502,507	521,175	439,688	496,194	482,523	434,984	320,208	253,50
Furs, ·····bxs.		28	118	43	37	45	32	16	12	6	···
Furs, ·bundles.		609	581	496	326	1,792	1,735	1,121	301	615	57
Feathers,·bags		4,607	5,403	4,568	1,484	1,737	470	489	457	141	15
Hemp, bundles		30,980	46,274	38,062	14,873	1,211	450	500	4,044	450	···
Hides, ·····		112,913	117,883	76,490	45,957	26,169	25,522	29,962	19,582	12,235	22,28
Horns, ·····		700	8,300	3,870	1,700	700	2,480	18,660	27,450	7,050	16,37
Hay,·· bundles		71,270	37,296	35,132	28,059	20,166	21,425	7,603	9,915	13,525	20,59
Iron, Pig, ·tons		1,083	207	100	211	322	512	1,001	411	1,834	41
Lard,····hhds.		45	167	212	1,433	74	74	146	313	30	···
Lard,····bbls.		107,639	60,078	119,717	104,540	18,207	9,672	5,007	8,620	3,737	3,66
Lard,·····kegs		334,969	245,414	373,341	307,871	366,694	311,710	177,303	218,387	224,388	203,82
Lime,west.bls.		8,387	6,233	3,767	1,159	830	2,406	1,020	900	500	59
Lead, ·····pigs		785,394	732,125	639,369	571,949	472,556	434,467	307,397	309,528	294,448	260,22
Lead, bar, kegs		1,431	788	851	701	1,094	601	863	807	1,520	42
Lead,white, do		7,853	888	30	50	592	····	····	····	····	···
Molasses, bbls.		132,363	105,086	64,852	66,183	69,104	····	····	····	····	···
Oats,bbls.&sks		259,386	144,262	130,432	120,430	63,281	54,250	42,885	38,708	25,514	32,18
Onions,···bbls.		6,979	7,499	6,443	4,614	3,338	6,457	2,871	441	1,805	4,64
Oil, linseed, do.		1,135	1,356	2,260	1,356	366	414	195	180	400	24
Oil, castor, ·do.		2,379	3,385	2,757	4,978	3,666	1,115	669	357	584	90
Oil, lard, ···do.		2,606	2,413	2,617	1,818	····	····	····	····	····	···
Pch.Brandy, do		54	46	49	72	267	147	9	51	177	19
Pickles, kgs,bls		1,316	218	1,154	445	140	157	427	611	214	82
Potatoes,·bbls.		107,058	53,779	56,587	48,060	26,201	28,468	21,469	6,254	16,565	26,59
Pork, ·····do.		369,601	216,960	412,928	204,643	244,442	216,974	120,908	166,071	139,463	115,58
Pork,····hhds.		9,988	6,741	8,900	2,371	946	763	1,067	1,160	1,523	53
Pork, bulk, lbs.		9,740,752	4,079,600	7,792,000	6,814,750	4,051,800	9,744,220	5,099,987	7,192,156	3,474,076	8,939,13
Porter&Ale,bls		231	86	604	1,050	514	2,133	106	324	95	1,18
Pack'g Yarn,rls		1,180	1,104	1,164	1,465	2,099	509	842	1,040	565	17
Skins,Deer,pks		4,364	2,729	1,939	1,496	3,219	1,650	2,200	3,183	2,925	4,01
Shot,·····kegs		3,103	4,105	4,714	1,588	3,416	6,501	1,442	1 345	1,962	1,89
Sugar,···hhds.		93,109	93,288	51,816	65,026	50,920	····	····	····	····	···
Soap, ···boxes		3,633	6,076	7,399	2,627	1,932	150	68	300	587	8
Shingles,·····		13	144,000	361,561	147,000	114,000	155,000	537,000	80,000	140,000	88,00
Staves,·····		5,679	2,500,000	1,362,678	1,165,400	425,000	736,800	1,000,000	1,700,000	600,000	1,000,00
Tallow, ··bbls.		8,255	7,828	7,323	6,995	5,071	937	200	748	135	7
Tobacco,lf hds		72,896	71,493	82,435	91,454	66,855	53,170	43,827	28,153	37,588	28,59
Do. chew. kgs		3,040	5,309	7,695	4,902	3,618	3,955	912	1,856	4,069	1,42
Tobacco, bales		1,105	3,799	4,771	3,008	3,298	1,226	280	1,386	144	1,53
Twine,bundles		734	1,951	2,099	1,903	1,175	1,009	993	912	654	26
Whiskey, bbls.		117,104	97,651	86,947	83,597	63,345	73,873	55,857	29,353	51,580	44,79
Wnd.Glass,bxs		2,831	3,071	2,066	2,342	2,761	760	2,363	2,732	2,859	2,05
Wheat, bls. sks		403,786	64,759	86,014	118,248	134,886	2,621	63,015	17,280	2,927	6,47

Comparative prices of Middling to Fair Cotton, at New Orleans, on the first of each month during a period of five years—together with the total receipts at New Orleans, and the total crops of the United States.

	1844–45.	1843–44.	1842–43.	1841–42.	1840–41.
	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.
September,	6 @7¼	5¼@ 8	6 @—	—@10¼	8 @10
October,	5¼@7¼	7 @ 8¼	6¼@8	8¼@ 9¼	9 @10
November,	5¼@6¼	6¼@ 8	5¼@7¼	8¼@10¼	8 @ 9¼
December,	4¼@6¼	7¼@ 8¼	5¼@7¼	8¼@10	8¼@ 9¼
January,	4¼@6¼	8¼@10¼	5¼@7¼	8 @ 9¼	8¼@ 9¼
February,	4¼@6¼	8¼@10	5¼@7¼	7¼@10	9¼@10¼
March,	5 @6¼	8¼@ 9¼	4¼@7	6¼@10	9¼@10¼
April,	5¼@7¼	7¼@ 9¼	4¼@7¼	7¼@10	9¼@10¼
May,	5¼@7¼	6¼@ 8¼	5¼@7¼	6¼@10	10¼@11¼
June,	5¼@7¼	7 @ 8¼	5¼@8	6¼@10	9¼@12
July,	6¼@7¼	6¼@ 8¼	5¼@8	6¼@10	9 @11¼
August,	6¼@7¼	6¼@ 8	5¼@8	6¼@—	9 @11¼
	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.
Receipts, N. O.	979,238	910,854	1,089,642	740,155	822,870
Crop, U. S.	2,400,000	2,030,409	2,378,875	1,683,574	1,634,945

Art. VI.—THE MISSISSIPPI.

THIS noble inland ocean, whose accumulated waters, after a passage of three thousand miles, lose themselves in the immense basin of the Mexican Gulf, remained for countless ages, wild, solitary, and unexplored. We can imagine the savage standing alone by its banks, and as the winds and the waters whispered to him of a Great Spirit, indulging vague notions of his own being. But those days have passed, and the savage no longer lingers. The white man has dispelled the romance; the axe of the forester is heard; the plow, the harrow, the blacksmith-shop and the farm-house, the thriving village, the busy town, the population, the civilization, are sweeping up the banks of the noble river even to its high sources in the Itasca lake.

A Spaniard, in 1538, stood by the side of this stream; he had been allured to the distant West by hopes of gain—by restless ambition—by love of adventure. "Fernando de Soto," says the historian, "found nothing so remarkable as his burying-place."

In 1668 two Canadian Fathers carried the cross westward from the lakes—Marquette and Allouez. They receive from Indian lips vague notions of a "great river;" and Marquette, with M. Joliet, a citizen of Quebec, reaches its banks and floats his canoe from the mouth of the Wisconsin to Arkansas.

But there was one whom nature was preparing for higher purposes. There crossed the waters from France at this time a man of highest resolves, most elevated conceptions, sternest endurance, and unlimited enterprise—La Salle.

This adventurer dreamed, that away in the remote sources of the Mississippi, was to be found that western passage to China and India, for which the world had so long sighed. The brain of La Salle was dazzled with the dream, and he saw himself at once a prince in the glory and wealth which the discovery would bring to France.

A vessel was launched on the lakes. The "Griffon," of sixty tons, first disturbed the quiet of those waters, and carried La Salle to

the south-westward of Michigan. On the Miamis, on the Kankake, on the Illinois, the adventurer and his party floated in canoes; they address a party of Indians on the banks in relation to the "Great River;" but old Nikanape, a chief, shook his head discouragingly.

He said "that others had perished in the attempt; that the banks were inhabited by a strong and terrible race of men, who killed everybody that came among them; that the waters swarmed with crocodiles, serpents and frightful monsters; and that even if the boat was large and strong enough to escape these dangers, it would be dashed in pieces by the falls and rapids, or meet with inevitable destruction in a hideous whirlpool at the river's mouth, where the river itself was swallowed up and lost."

La Salle was not deterred. On the 6th February, 1681, his canoe floated upon the broad bosom of the Mississippi, and the current carried him on. It was now two months, and the river presented three channels. The party divide in these channels, and in a few days the glad voices of civilized men break upon the solitude of the Mexican Gulf—*La Salle had navigated the Mississippi river to its mouth.* A column was erected, banners floated, artillery echoed, and *Domine salvum fac regem* was chaunted by monks.

The adventurer returned to France. The ministry and the people were ready to second his scheme of a colony, to be located at the river's mouth. The vessels sail; but fate has made another decree. Catastrophe follows catastrophe, and misfortunes unparalleled. The bay of St. Bernard, in Texas, is mistaken for the mouth of the Mississippi; La Salle discovers the error, and in struggling to correct it dies by the hand of an assassin.

A writer in the Southern Quarterly Review for January, 1845, finishes the picture:

"Thus died Robert Cavalier de la Salle by the hands of his own men, on whose account his whole soul's anxiety had been exercised. Thus perished ignobly, and not unlike Charles XII. at Fredericshall, the man who had passed a thousand imminent perils and hair-breadth 'scapes.' In the wild woods of America ascended the dying groans of one, whose intrepidity, enterprise and genius, rendered him one of the most extraordinary characters of his age; and with all his faults, not among its least estimable. In the midst of his career, surrounded with clouds and darkness, and almost hopeless of realizing his darling schemes, death closed the scene. Scarcely inferior to Columbus as an adventurer, he was even less fortunate. Had he but lived to effect his purposes, what a name might have been his! 'I acknowledge,' says the Abbe Raynal, 'that men accustomed to judge of things by the event, call great and perilous resolutions, heroism or madness, according to the good or bad success with which they have been attended.'

"How vain the aspirations of life, and to what little end its unceasing struggles!

Quum tamen a figulis munitam intraverit urbem,
Sarcophagus contentus erit—

says the Latin moralist.

"In the heart of that gallant country whose struggles for liberty have been so manly, near the waters of the Brazos and the now flour-

ishing town of Washington, its first discoverer breathed out his spirit. The good Father Anastase dug his grave, and planted a cross over his remains.

"'Thus perished,' says he, 'our wise conductor; constant in adversities, intrepid, generous, engaging, adroit, skilful, and capable of anything. He who, during a period of twenty years, had softened the fierce temper of a vast number of savage nations, was massacred by his own people, whom he had loaded with benefits. He died in the vigor of life, in the midst of his career and his labors, without the consolation of having seen their result.'"

Art. VII.—LOUISIANA SUGAR.

The cane is now cultivated and worked into sugar in nineteen parishes, to wit: Point Coupée, West Baton Rouge, East Baton Rouge, Iberville, Ascension, St. James, St. John the Baptist, St. Charles, Jefferson, St. Bernard, Plaquemines, Assumption, Lafourche Interior, Terrebonne, St. Mary, St. Martin, Lafayette, Vermillion, and St. Landry; and large preparations are making for its introduction and manufacture in the following heretofore exclusively cotton parishes, to wit: Rapides, Avoyelles, Concordia, Catahoula, and Calcassieu.

The extent of sugar lands embraced in the above parishes, and which could be put into cultivation at the ordinary expense of clearing and draining, would be sufficient to supply the whole consumption of the United States; and by applying to our low, flat lands, for a few years, the artificial draining of Holland (and more particularly to the tract on our western coast, between the sea and the Mississippi), lands enough could be reclaimed to supply, besides, the consumption of a large portion of Europe.

By State documents, in the archives of the French government, it appears that the culture of the cane was strongly recommended in the earliest days of the colony.

This valuable plant was first introduced from St. Domingo by the Jesuits; and it was cultivated on their plantation, where now stands the most flourishing part of suburb St. Mary, as early as 1725–6.

The species first imported was the Malabar, otherwise called Cristalline, or Creole cane. The next species was the Otaheite, sometime about the close of the last century. The third species was the Ribbon cane, in 1817; it was first introduced from Georgia, by a Mr. Coiron; it came, originally, from the East Indies, and presents a good many varieties; it is now the favorite plant, owing to its earlier maturity, and its resisting better an early winter—two very important qualities in this climate.

The manufacture of cane into sugar does not appear to have commenced before 1764, when samples were sent to the mother country from the estate of Chevalier de Mazan, near the city, on the opposite bank. The yield per acre was then stated to have been 3,000 lbs., and the quality was pronounced to be equal to that of St. Domingo muscovado.

The cession of Louisiana to Spain, at that epoch, appears to have put a stop to that industry, for no farther traces of sugar-making are to be found until 1791, when the first sugar-house, under the Spanish government was erected by a Mr. Solis, at Terre-au-Bœufs, in the parish of St. Bernard. The next was established in 1796, on a plantation situated where now stands Carrolton, and belonging to a Mr. Boré; it produced a crop of $12,000, a sum considered at that epoch as very large. This result may be said to have laid the foundation of the sugar industry in Louisiana. Its progress, however, was at first extremely slow; and at the epoch of the cession of Louisiana to the United States, the number of sugar estates was very small, no doubt owing to the want of capital.

The statistics from 1803 to 1817 are so deficient, that it is extremely difficult to arrive at any correct data as to the progressive annual increase of the sugar crop during the above period.

The crop in 1818 had attained 25,000 hogsheads. Cattle was the only power used, up to that period.

In 1822, steam power was introduced; the first engines and mills cost about $12,000, and were chiefly imported by Gordon and Forstall. This power, however, was used but by very few, until our own foundries placed it within the reach of all, by reducing its cost to $5,000 or $6,000.

The crop of	1822-23	amounted to	30,000	hogsheads.
" "	1823-24	"	32 000	"
" "	1824-25	"	30,000	"
" "	1825-26	"	45,000	"
" "	1826-27	"	71,000	"
" "	1827-28	"	87,965	"
" "	1828-29	"	48,238	"
" "	1829-30	"	73,000	"
" "	1830-31	"	75,000	"
" "	1831-32	"	75,000	"
" "	1832-33	"	70,000	"
" "	1833-34	"	75.000	"
" "	1834-35	"	110,000	"
" "	1835-36	"	36,000	"
" "	1836-37	"	75,000	"
" "	1837-38	"	——	no return.
" "	1838-39	"	——	no return.
" "	1839-40	"	119,947	hogsheads.
" "	1840-41	"	120,000	"
" "	1841-42	"	125,000	"
" "	1842-43	"	140,316	"
" "	1843-44	"	100,346	"
" "	1844-45	"	204,913	"

Each hogshead averaging 1,000 lbs. net, and yielding from 45 to 50 gallons of molasses.

Number of Sugar Estates in operation in 1827-8, 308, worked as follows:—

Manual power, about	21,000 slaves.
Steam,	82 engines.
Horse,	226
Capital invested, then estimated at about	$34,000,000

Number of Sugar Estates in operation or preparing to work, in 1830, 691:—

Manual power, about	36,000 slaves.
Steam,	282 engines.
Horse,	409
Capital then invested, estimated at about	$50,000,000

Number of Sugar Estates in operation in 1841-2, 668:
Manual power, as ascertained by the last Federal census, 50,670 slaves.
Steam, - - - - - - - - - - - - - 361 engines.
Horse, - - - - - - - - - - - - - 307

Number of Sugar Estates in operation in 1843-4, 762:
Manual power, at least - - - - - - - 50,670 slaves.
Steam, - - - - - - - - - - - - - 408 engines.
Horse, - - - - - - - - - - - - - 354
Capital invested, estimated at about - - $60,000,000

It has been ascertained by Mr Champomier, in a late excursion throughout the State, that not less than 410 cotton estates are now in full preparation to go into the sugar business.

The tariff of 1842 has truly created a new era for the sugar industry. No doubt it will now be seen in the ascendant until we shall have reached the full amount required for the consumption of the United States, which, at present, is not under 350,000,000 lbs. Until 1831, it was the general belief that Louisiana sugars were too weak for refining. Questioned upon this subject on the floor of Congress, the late Messrs. Edward Livingston and Josiah Johnson, were compelled to confess that it was so. This supplied Messrs. Lea and other politicians of the East, with a most powerful argument to demand a reduction of the duty on sugars imported for refining, to wit: that no protection ought to be asked by Louisiana against an article it could not produce. This would have been a fatal blow to this State. At that epoch, however, Gordon and Forstall had just introduced into the State the *vacuo* process of Howard, and the argument of Mr. Lea and supporters was met by shipments of several hundred tons of sugar, refined from pure Louisiana, which obtained the medal in New York. This, for the time being, put an effectual end to the crusade preparing against Louisiana.

Five or six years ago, two of our planters adopted the same process, and they have been eminently successful: not less than six estates are now upon the white system plan; and such are the improvements now going on, and the skill brought into action, that it requires no prophet to predict, that but few years can now elapse before Louisiana shall have it in her power to supply the whole Union with white sugars directly from the cane.

OPELOUSAS.

Art. VIII.—THE CONSULAR SYSTEM.

"COMMERCE," we are told in the words of Thomas Carlyle, "king." There is as much of truth as quaintness in the expression, and we could not, upon reflection, think of a more appropriate for our work. No empire was ever established so universal in sway, so powerful in its control, so capable of binding individuals together the heterogeneous masses of mankind, as the one over which "King Commerce" wields his sceptre in the nineteenth century. Though the rod of this potentate is broken into pieces, we know not what influence is to come from, to bring together again and unite the disjointed fragments. Despite of all the beautiful theories

tions of philosophy, the INTERESTS of mankind constitute the strongest and most enduring bond of their union.

The Empire of Commerce began its growth in what we are accustomed to call the "dark ages." The flint and steel were in its hand, which struck out the sparks of light that are recognized at that obscure period. The best authorities on international or public law and modern civilization admit, that the stipulations and compacts which commerce induced, were among the first in the order of those influences, which resulted in the resuscitation of letters and arts, and in the entire redemption of mankind. The lordly barons in wresting from King John the rights he had usurped, stipulated at the same time in behalf of the rights of all merchant traders visiting the empire.*

The London chapmen, in losing their insignificance and in growing up to princely wealth, established a third estate in the kingdom; too respectable to be despised, too powerful to be resisted, and bold enough to declare for or against kings and dynasties, for the Henrys or Edwards of the middle ages.

Whether for Britain, for France, or for Russia—for India, for the South Seas and the Pacific, or for republican America—there is but one voice now, and that cries for "trade." "Give us of your labor, and take of ours." "Buy" or "sell" are the pregnant words in every language under heaven. The RIALTO is the centre of the world's negotiations. For this navies float upon the ocean, for this grave embassies receive audience from the Tammahamahas of the Pacific, and talk Chinese with the potentates of the Celestial Empire.

What has become *war* in the lexicography of "King Commerce's" subjects? Will men apply torches to the granaries which contain their bread? Will they batter to pieces and sink in the ocean the elements of trade, which are to warm them amid winter snows, and defend them from summer suns? The lines of consolidation between nations and men are verging nearer to each other; and they meet in the unity, the entire "oneness" of us all.

To watch over and protect the great interests of trade, permanent departments of government have been instituted, which, taken together, constitute what is called the Consular System of the world. These *agencies*, representing their sovereign and country, are located at every considerable emporium of traffic, and by the theory of their constitution, are supposed to possess the sleeplessness of Argus, in watching over the rights and privileges and interests of their countrymen abroad, and the many-handedness of Briareus in providing for their security and defense.

This Consular System was scarcely at all understood among the ancients. Mr. Lester, our able and efficient consul at Genoa, whose work upon this subject is now before us,† observes that we get the term *consul* from the Romans; and certainly we get little else. The

* This provision of the Magna Charta drew from Montesquieu the concession that the people of England, above all other people in the world, understood the value of commerce and liberty.

† A Letter on the Establishment of a new Consular System in the United States: with Glances at the Origin and History of the Consular Establishments of Ancient and Modern Nations—the evils of our present system, the remedy, &c., &c. Addressed to Hon. Wm. W. Campbell, Member of Congress elect, from the City New York.

consuls of the early republic were scarcely less in authority than the kings they superseded. Still the interests of Commerce were not neglected in antiquity, but agents were located in different trading states, charged with duties of a similar nature to our modern consuls. The codes of international law, which obtained, for the most part, in those ages even among the most enlightened nations, were such as to speak little for the advancement of mankind. The ships of Athens were characterized as a "piratical fleet,"—"universal spoliation abroad, and cruel oppression at home," is affirmed of Rome, and Pnœnicia, Tyre, and Carthage, recognized no rights or duties in their intercourse with foreigners.

Mr. Lester confesses the difficulties of tracing out the origin of the modern system:

"It has long been a disputed point with whom the modern Consular System originated, and what nation first led the way in the establishment of the commercial code, which was finally adopted by modern states, and has in our own times worked itself so deeply into the laws of nations. Nor could it be placed in its proper light without great toil and learning, aided by all the facilities which might be derived from investigations conducted on the shores and islands of the Mediterranean." pp. 165–66.

When the decayed tree of Rome had fallen and lay massive in its ruins, there grew up on the soil of Italy a few republics of contracted territorial limits, but of genius and enterprise which astonished the world, and of power and influence which made themselves felt among crowned potentates, and extorted from Rome's proud pontiff the confession, that Genoa alone was more "adequate" to the conquest of the Saracens in Africa, than any other power in Europe.

That noble Commercial Code, the *Consolato del Mare*, which has been attributed to the Spaniards, is now said to have originated in the councils of Pisa. The Pisans conquered Amalfi in the 12th century, and carried off the copy of Justinian's Institutes, which had been deposited there—the only copy existing. The *Consolato del Mare* recognizes the existence and regulates the actions of the Consular System.

Venice and Genoa were not long in adopting and carrying out the wise policy of the Pisans. They had commercial agents throughout all the East, and wherever public interests appeared to require it. These officers were held in the highest regard; they were required to be diplomatists; they were sent in public vessels, and were not allowed to participate in any traffic. What were the results?

We are told of Venice—

> "Her daughters had their dowers
> From spoils of nations; and the exhaustless East
> Poured in her lap all gems in sparkling showers."

And Shakespeare says:

> "Since that the trade and profit of the city
> Consisteth of all nations."

"Venice, which had been founded by a few old men, women, and children, who had fled to the marshes of the Adriatic, to escape the rage and devastation of the northern barbarians, who were sweeping over Italy, became, in a few centuries, the first power in Europe.

Pisa, which had been obliged to struggle for many years against the most formidable obstacles that can ever impede the growth of new states, with a malaria which annually swept off a multitude of her population, soon made her name feared from the pillars of Hercules to the shores of the Danube and the banks of the Nile, and became the commercial law-giver of all future ages. Genoa, which stands at the head of the Ligurian sea, hemmed in by almost impassable mountains, the Apennines and maritime Alps (which she could not cross), could not get her bread from the barren and rocky hill-sides, and she was driven out upon the Mediterranean. In the 8th century, the little city of Genoa drove the Saracens from their hold on the continent to the island of Corsica; from Corsica, she chased them to Sardinia; from Sardinia, she forced them out upon the open sea, and at last fell upon the seat of their power in Africa, and laid their capital in the dust—seized uncounted millions of treasure, liberated all the Christian captives of all their wars, and dragged back their dreaded chief to an Italian prison, where he died in chains." pp. 176–78.

It was not till 1485 that England commissioned an agent to reside abroad for the performance of consular duties, and not until the 17th century that these commissions came to be generally granted throughout the European States.

We have alluded to Mr. Lester's letter to Mr. Campbell. This active representative of our merchants abroad complains bitterly of the defects of the American consular system. He regards it, in fact, as no system at all; and trusts that a government such as ours will not long endure its abuses. Surely there needs no elaborate argument at this late day to establish the importance, the absolute necessity, of a proper vigilance over our commerce and our shipping, now scattered over every sea in the world, and over our citizens, who find their way "to the uttermost ends of the earth." If there be any deficiency in the present establishment, an American Congress will look to it—an American people will demand its removal.

We make a few extracts from Mr. Lester, which establish the abuse, and propose the remedy:

"The office of a consul is generally held by American *merchants* or *foreigners;* for, with a few exceptions, no American who is qualified for such a station will ask for or accept an office which is only a bill of expense, except with a view of making his official standing contribute to his own speculations. There are many ports where an American business cannot be supported; and, in such cases, those consulates are filled by foreigners." p. 191.

In regard to the evil of appointing a *merchant* to be consul, Mr. Lester gives the following example in point:

"In 1842 or '43 (I am not certain which), an American merchantman arrived at a port in the Meditarranean with a valuable cargo, which the captain was authorized to consign to any house he might select. He addressed himself to the consul, from whom he had reason (as his constituted adviser) to expect safe and disinterested counsel. The consul requested him to go on making the necessary arrangements for discharging his cargo, and call the following day. In the mean time the consul laid a scheme by which he should receive no little profit; although, with an appearance of disinterestedness,

the cargo was to be consigned to another man. The captain had never been in the port before, could not speak a word of the language, was ignorant of the customs of the place and the state of the market, which put it out of his power to get the necessary information to guide him in transacting the business for himself. The cargo was just the one which at that moment, if properly sold, would have given the largest profit to the owners. Intelligence had been privately received by the consul the day before, which made his profit large and sure upon his own merchandise and that of the captain. This intelligence, however, he did not communicate to the captain, and his cargo went for the price which then ruled in the market! This intelligence it was the duty of the consul to communicate to the captain, and he would have done it, without doubt, had he been disinterested! He kept his own counsel, and made over ten thousand dollars by the speculation!" pp. 194–5.

Mr. Lester exposes the evils of appointing *foreigners* to our consulates abroad, men without any interest or regard for our institutions, or even, at times, any knowledge of them. He received from one of these consuls, not long since, a letter directed "To his Lordship, the American Consul-General of the United States and its Dependencies."

The following extract illustrates the subject most pointedly:

"For several years the consulate of Trieste has been held by an Englishman, by the name of Moore; and as he has been recently removed, and with very great propriety, I feel no delicacy in calling his name and stating a fact. While the M'Leod case was pending in this country, and a rupture with Great Britain seemed likely to take place, the governor of Malta dispatched a fleet of steamers to the straits of Gibraltar to intercept all our merchant vessels, as soon as the governor of Gibraltar received an intimation of the hostile intentions of Great Britain. At this time there were a large number of our merchantmen in the Mediterranean, and several at Trieste.

"Mr. Andrews, our consul at Malta, immediately sent dispatches to all his colleagues in that sea, communicating this important information, that all American vessels might have warning, and remain in the ports of friendly powers. Mr. Andrews had often enough before had occasion to know that no dependence could be placed upon the consul at Trieste, and he sent a dispatch to Mr. Perdicarus, consul at Athens, requesting him to embrace the earliest opportunity of giving intelligence to our merchantmen in the port of Trieste; and assigned as a reason for adopting this course, that Moore, being an Englishman, no dependence could be placed upon him in such a case. To show how well-grounded was this conviction, Mr. Moore was heard by several Americans (I was informed) to say, that 'Mr. Andrews did perfectly right; for he must have been a great fool to suppose I should do anything that would have a direct tendency to injure my country. The Americans appoint me consul, to do consular business in time of peace; but when war comes, that is quite another matter.'"

Mr. Lester proposes, as a remedy, the adoption of the following principles:

Consuls should be paid salaries sufficient to preserve the rank and

dignity of the office; should have judicial power to settle differences between citizens abroad; should have a proper library of commerce and diplomacy, and have all their rights and duties particularly defined; should be prohibited from any commercial transactions whatever on their own account; should have no fees beyond their salary; should be divided into grades of office, consuls, vice-consuls, and consuls-general; the consul-general to have served three years in a simple consulate first, and his jurisdiction to extend over several of these consulates. Lastly, Mr. Lester would have commercial agents to gather information abroad for the use of government. At the meeting of the Zollverein, in 1843, Great Britain had thirteen agents present, and the United States had but one—he being accidentally on the spot.

We close with a paragraph which sums up the whole:

"First, there is not an American merchant, nor an American master, nor an American seaman, who is not disgusted with the wretched system, and who would not rejoice in a change.

"Second, there is not an American consul who will not join with them.

"Third, our commerce is laboring under embarrassments which can never be removed until we have organized an efficient and well-regulated Consular Establishment." p. 214.

Art. IX.—THE WAREHOUSING POLICY.

It is scarcely possible that the present Congress can dispose of this interesting question as their predecessors have done. The sense of the country seems now to have been fairly taken upon it, and a general voice of approval obtained. At former periods, when the subject was little understood, many were disposed to doubt, and a diversity of opinion prevailed even in the mercantile community, as is proved by the opposing memorial of the Charleston Chamber of Commerce. But that time, we think, has passed.

We were at Memphis, Tennessee, when a large portion of the Southern States were present, and the whole of the Western ones. Mr. Minor, from Virginia, reported favorably on the system; and had the vote of the Convention been taken upon the merits of the question, from everything we saw and heard there, little doubt can exist that the report would have been almost unanimously adopted. Unfortunately, however, a gentleman, Mr. Trescott, of Charleston, presented a minority report, signed by himself and three others, which disposed of the question, as we conceived, on grounds scarcely tenable. The minority were not opposed to the warehousing system, but did not think it a proper subject to come before the Convention, partaking, as it did of a party complexion, and relating more to the mercantile than to the agricultural interests. We admired the ability of our friend Mr. Trescott's report, but humbly submitted that the subject *was* within the legitimate sphere of the Convention, and related to the best concerns of the whole country, without any reference to its parties or its politics.

The late report of the Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Walker, comes out nobly in advocacy of the measure, and will, we think, exert a wide influence everywhere. We have only to refer to the facts upon which he bases his views, to adopt them.

Taxation is, at best, an evil; and, as such, should be disposed so as to press lightest upon the community. Mr. Jefferson had a motto which was a good one: "Taxes, as much as is necessary, and no more; as long as is necessary, and no longer." One of the best established principles in political economy is, to levy the tax on commodities at the nearest possible period to consumption. The consumer should not have to pay the tax, and the interest on the tax, when only the former can reach the government coffers. The warehousing policy proposes to tax the *consumption* only, and not the *importations* of the country.

Prior to 1842, we had a system of credit; but this is not to be tolerated in government finances, and it was found so. The warehouse is a necessary adjunct of *cash* duties. Without it, cash duties, even with the debenture feature, have the effect of destroying a large portion of the commerce of a country. According to Mr. Walker's Report, the total amount of foreign imports re-exported, since the tariff of 1842, three years, in free and dutiable goods, is only $33,384,394, less than for any similar period since 1793, except during the war. Our re-exports have reached for three years $173,108,813; they never before fell under $41,315,705, for the same time. Our re-exports in dutiable goods for the last three years, were only $12,590,811 less than any three years since 1820. They have reached to $57,727,000, and never since 1820 fell below $14,918,444.

The warehousing system, the secretary thinks, will largely tend to build up our re-export commerce. "Under the present system," he says, "the merchant introduces foreign imports of the value $100,000. He must now, besides the advance for the goods, make a further advance in cash, in many cases of $50,000, for the duties. Under such a system, but a small amount of goods will be imported for drawback; and the higher the duty, the larger must be the advance, and the smaller the imports for re-exportation." He thinks that transporting goods from warehouse to warehouse, from the East to the Lakes, to Pittsburg, Cincinnati and Louisville, from New Orleans to Natchez, Vicksburg, Memphis and St. Louis, and collecting the duties at these places, will augment business and cheapen supplies—will introduce large stocks for re-export, and greatly increase the revenue. In all of this we heartily concur.

The Chamber of Commerce of New Orleans, in a report from Messrs. W. L. Hodge, Alexander Gordon, and J. W. Zacharie, adopted a few days ago with but one dissenting voice, thus express themselves upon this subject:

"It is a high and strong recommendation in favor of it, (the warehousing system,) that it was adopted on the most liberal and extensive footing in all those nations most celebrated for their commercial wisdom and experience. The want of it has already driven from New Orleans nearly the whole of the Mexican trade, as the merchants of that country can no longer procure here those large and varied assortments of foreign manufactures, which were always to be obtained in

this city, and this lucrative want of commerce has been transferred to Havana, where a liberal warehouse system exists.

"While New Orleans retained this trade, from four to five millions of specie were annually received here from Mexico, while the amount now received is not a tenth part of that sum. Other parts of the Union have also suffered from the same cause, and it also operates injuriously as regards the produce and manufactures of the country, as these foreign purchasers always bought largely of them when making up their stock."

Great Britain has managed to take the lead of us in matters of commercial polity. She saw the evils of the system we are now suffering. One of her first writers, Dean Tucker, as early as 1745, in an essay, painted them in glaring colors. Sir Robert Walpole, twenty years before, had almost fallen a victim to an ungovernable mob, for endeavoring in some degree to rectify the abuse. In 1803, Great Britain adopted the warehousing system, and in 1833 perfected it. The result is, that Great Britain has the commercial empire of the world!

Since 1843, the matter has been much before the people of the United States. The President, in his Message of that year, strongly urged its adoption, on four grounds:

"1. That it would protect the market against redundant or deficient supplies; and that, through this influence, an approximation would be made to a steadiness and uniformity of price, which, if attainable, would conduce to the decided advantage of mercantile and mechanical operations.

"2. That without something to ameliorate the rigor of cash payment, the entire import trade may fall into the hands of a few wealthy capitalists, in this country and in Europe; that the present system may operate to the injury of the small importer, and that the rich capitalist abroad as well as at home would thus possess, after a short time, almost an exclusive monopoly of the import trade.

"3. That a profitable portion of the carrying trade in articles entered for the benefit of drawback, must be seriously affected, without the adoption of some expedient to relieve the cash system.

"4. That the effect of the measure would be to supersede the system of drawback, thereby effectually protecting the government against fraud; as the right of debenture would not attach to goods after their withdrawal from the public stores."

The President's suggestion, together with the memorials of New York, Philadelphia, and New Orleans, were referred to the committee on Commerce, of which Mr. Kennedy was chairman. The committee seem to have looked upon the subject as something new and untried—something which required the utmost caution in the world; and the result was, that they reported a bill favorable to the system to some extent, yet with limitations and restrictions enough to destroy all its value. The bill was not acted on. It provided for—

1. The procurement of temporary warehouses.
2. The option to importers until 30th June, 1845, to introduce goods

under the warehousing law, or under the old law with its debentures, &c.

3. The privilege of warehouse for two years on all kinds of merchandise, but the duties to be paid at all events in six months, whether withdrawn or not. Default of such payment, interest to be charged on duties.

Thus stood the matter. On the 12th February, 1824, the Hon. Mr. Phœnix, in the House of Representatives, ably reported on it, with an unanswerable array of facts and arguments. The whole subject is now before the country. On behalf of the South and West, we bespeak for it favor, assured as we are that prosperity will result from it to these sections, and that they will be thus elevated to a due participation in the foreign trade of the nation.

We hope to resume the subject in our next, through a commercial friend.

Art. X.—OREGON AND CALIFORNIA.

We have before us a pamphlet which the editor of this Magazine, twelve months ago, prepared with great labor, on the subject of our rights and duties towards Oregon and California. He gave the subject at that time all the consideration which its importance deserved; and having at hand all the authorities which could be collected, he was enabled, he thinks, to arrive at just conclusions. Leaving, however, the disputed subject of sovereignty, which is still causing much excitement in both England and America, it would be a proper occasion to introduce some paragraphs from the pamphlet, which go to show the character of the soil, the resources, the prospects, and the past history of these countries. We do this in order to contribute as much as possible to the correct and general understanding of the whole question.

We commence with California:

Proportionate with the eastern projection of Florida, and almost in the same latitude with it, the narrow neck of land which constitutes the peninsula of California juts outward from the continent. To the northward, and to the north-eastward, and as yet to an extent not clearly defined, are the remaining portions of California. Toward this section two nations have, of late, exhibited a partiality rather unpleasing to each other and to the governments which assume the sovereignty—Great Britain and the United States. Of the movements of the former there has been some uncertainty. We know determinately the proceedings of our own government. In 1835, Mr. Forsyth offered the Mexican authorities five millions of dollars for the whole country of California. In 1842, laboring under an unfortunate misunderstanding, Capt. Jones, of the American navy, seized upon the post and fortifications of Monterey, and floated over them for a while the banner of the 'stripes and stars.' The matter was soon after satisfactorily explained.

The restless spirit of Cortez was not long content with his triumphs over the empire of Montezuma. His enterprise was di-

rected to the Gulf of California, which his fleets navigated throughout. Beyond the gulf, they passed into the great river opening into it—the Colorado of the West. On either side of this gulf, the settlements attempted for many years were unsuccessful. The attention of the Jesuits was at last turned in that direction. The restless enterprise of this society did much, very soon, to advance the condition and make known to the world the territories into which they found entrance. Soon were their establishments in a prosperous state. They had begun to operate upon the natives—to civilize them, and to herald the doctrines of the cross in their midst. These labors were not without their reward; but a jealousy of the political intrigues of the order in Europe, banished them from Portugal, from Spain, and from the Spanish possessions of California. The fifteen or twenty stations which the Jesuits had supported, with their churches and forts and store-houses, etc., now passed into the hands of the Dominicans. The Indian tribes which had been reduced into a partial civilization, by the severest but perhaps the only efficient agencies, now relapsed as rapidly as they had advanced, and when the revolution of 1822 severed Spain from her trans-Atlantic provinces, and California had united under the Mexican Constitution of 1824, the Indians, set free from all restraints, indulged their natural vices, and the missions fell entirely into decay. When Santa Anna trampled under foot the Constitution of 1824, California made a show of resistance, but at last yielded to the wily policy of the Dictator. Since then, in common with the other Mexican states, she has been the theatre of continual revolutions. Even while we write, a movement is reported in progress for her entire emancipation from Mexican misrule.

The population of California is not all aboriginal, or Spanish. Foreigners have been attracted, by the facilities of trade, etc., to make settlements in the country, to the no small annoyance of the Mexican authorities. At the present moment, the whole population is not above thirty thousand, of which only a very small portion are Europeans. California has a small commercial intercourse with the United States. Merchant ships bring from there, hides, tallow, etc., the abundant productions of continental California, in exchange for our manufactured articles. The American fur traders, from the vicinities of Missouri, have their hunters, trappers, etc., scattered through much of the territory, and especially in the vicinity of the Colorado river.

Whether California will ever become of any great importance in the history of the world, or advance to any conspicuous position, either agriculturally, commercially or politically, is susceptible of the greatest doubt. To Mexico, from remoteness of position, and other causes, it must ever be of trifling importance. In itself, it has little prospect beyond a nerveless imbecility. To great commercial nations, the fine harbors opened along its coast on the Pacific, for the protection of merchant ships and navies in their distant Indian voyages, will always be attractive. Its intermediate position, too, between the fur trading posts of North-west America, and the fisheries of the Southern ocean, as well as its proximity to the Sandwich group of Islands, are relative advantages of the highest con-

sideration. What remains to be said about the territory, may be summed up in a few words. Scarcely a country in the world is cursed with a soil more hopelessly sterile. Everything is burned up from the want of rain. For years at a time, scarcely a cloud breaks into showers. Spots there are, fertile spots spoken of, along the banks of the Colorado; but of the Colorado and its vicinities, little is known. The country watered by that stream, and stretching upward to the mountains, is almost an unexplored wilderness. Where artificial irrigation is possible, agriculture, it is thought, will thrive. On the Pacific coast, in the vicinity of St. Francisco bay, 38°, and at San Bernard, 34°, there are favored sites. In the heart of the country, rich veins of gold ore exist; and on the Gulf of California, pearls of rare beauty and preciousness have ever been afforded."

In relation to the geography, soil and climate of Oregon, we have the following:

In the third great valley of Oregon, or that between the Blue and Rocky mountains, a barren wilderness, for hundreds of miles, presents itself alone to the wearied traveler. Scarcely a relief to the eye can be found, from rocks heaped upon rocks in wildest profusion. Here the soil is seldom irrigated by the blessed streams and showers of heaven. Here all is dry and parched, and vegetation droops and dies in the vain effort to imbibe its nourishment from the soil. Freezing nights shoot death through the tender foliage of plants, which, in the day season, have been parched with heat. Here and there, at remote spaces, a river site furnishes an exception to the dark picture; but even then, scanty indeed are the promises to agricultural industry. Pasture lands, however, may be found in many parts, and certain grasses appear to thrive under every disadvantage. We dare affirm that this region will be the last sought by civilized man. Little is there here to invite his footsteps. Little is there in the boundless, undulating, treeless plains, where the scanty streams dry up, and even the deer, the elk and the buffalo are compelled to seek more favored spots. Lawless men, it has been thought, will find refuge and shelter here. Spoliations and depredations will be easy on the regions either side of the mountains. Brigands and robber chieftains may grow up into power, and co-operating with the savage man, revengeful from long oppression, carry dismay and death before them. These are among the reflections of Washington Irving, in relation to this region. Yet there are beauties in it too.

"The monotony of these immense landscapes,' says he, 'would be as wearisome as that of the ocean, were it not relieved in some degree by the purity and elasticity of the atmosphere, and the beauty of the heavens. The sky has that delicious blue for which the sky of Italy is renowned. The sun shines with a splendor unobscured by any cloud or vapor, and star-light on the prairies is glorious.

In the second great valley, or the middle valley of Oregon, between the Blue and Far West mountains, nature begins to grow more bountiful, and scatters her favors with readier hand. Water, however, is still the great desideratum, and were artificial irrigation possible, the soil in all probability would be very fertile. The only drawback would be the variations of temperature between the night

and day, which are here very considerable also. Districts of abundant pasture lands lie scattered in every direction, and seem to promise this as a great cattle country. The herdsman will find abundant encouragement, and if there be no deception, his cattle may range over "a thousand hills." The Walla Walla river fertilizes a small portion of this valley, and throws it into a garden spot, where civilized life has broken upon the desolation, and the smiling hills and landscapes, with fruit, flowers and grain, have gladdened the hearts of the children of men.

The Pacific, or westernmost valley of Oregon, is the great agricultural region of that section of the globe. On either side of the Columbia, it stretches from the Straits of Fuca to the waters of the Umpqua river. South of the Columbia are located the Eden spots of all Western America. In this valley of fifty thousand square miles—susceptible, to a large extent, of profitable cultivation—a population equal to that of many of our States could be supported to advantage. Hills and valleys range themselves over its surface, and forests, dense forests, the most magnificent in the world, are spread abroad with a munificence of donation. Here, if anywhere, must be the seat of empire, population and wealth, beyond the Rocky Mountains; here, while the inhospitable and barren regions around remain in their primitive desolation. The climate of this favored spot is genial, and the thermometer in summer ranges seldom higher than 80°. During that season, cool and refreshing breezes from the westward and north-westward constantly prevail. The winters are rainy, though mild and healthy. This season of rain sets in about October, and prevails till April; it is regular and constant, but seldom so violent as to retard the usual occupations of the people. At times, however, the storms baffle description, if Washington Irving be relied on. "The sun is sometimes obscured for weeks, the brooks swell into roaring torrents, and the country is threatened with a deluge;" but these things soon pass away, and nature smiles out again. A winter in this section of Oregon, is represented by all authorities as temperate, and not unlike that of some of our Southern States. Population, hardy and enterprising, from the American States, have already been attracted to the spot, and are still migrating thitherward in large companies. Farms, villages and towns have grown up; agriculture, commerce and government have followed close in their rear, and the "useful man," with his axe and his plow, is developing the fruits of industry and civilization. We shall have occasion again to recur largely to this section; at present, let us finish the merely physical or geographical sketch with which we set out.

The following extract will exhibit the progress of American emigration:

The earlier operations of the Americans in Oregon were signal failures, as we shall have occasion to see. Three or four years ago there were hardly five hundred of our citizens in all that region, and these were simply farmers, graziers or mechanics, and were located about the Willamet and Walla Walla rivers. In 1843, one thousand persons, of all ages, emigrated from the Mississippi Valley to these distant borders. They carried with them horses, cattle, wagons, and every other matter necessary in so extensive an enterprise. Since

that period, a constant tide has been setting thither, and the last accounts are, that many thousands, from all sections, are even now congregated in Missouri, enthusiastic for the great westward movement.

A single passage in relation to the value of Oregon to the U. States:

There are views of Oregon to which the mass of our people are not yet accustomed. It seems to many chimerical to connect that country intimately with the commerce of the East Indies and the Pacific Ocean. But who shall prescribe bounds to national enterprise, and particularly to the enterprise of a nation like ours, so boundless in resources. It may be asked, can we not participate more intimately in the eastern trade than we yet have done? May not our commerce to the opening ports of China, for example, rival, if not surpass that of any people on the earth? The commerce of the East Indies has for ages been a glittering object in the eyes of trading nations. They have sought it, and grown up to power and influence under its support. What, for instance, were the Italian republics, until the bounteous products of the East were thrown into their lap; and where were Venice and Genoa and Pisa, when the Portuguese, by a shorter passage to the Indies, had cut off these rich resources? Britain, too, what has been her advance since she has enjoyed an almost monopoly of this invaluable trade? If possessions on the Pacific Ocean will facilitate such a commerce—if they be necessary to its existence—then, surely, we will not be neglectful of these possessions. There are various ways in which they might be valuable. Let an overland communication from ocean to ocean be established, and the Pacific coast will be of inestimable importance. Such a communication would give us a monopoly of the trade of the Pacific, and bring to us its untold wealth.

Art. XI.—POST OFFICE REFORM.

When Rowland Hill was pressing the matter of cheap postage upon the people of England, the strong argument was used, that if a law were passed prohibiting parents to speak to their children till they had paid sixpence to government for permission, the wickedness would be so palpable that there would be an end to the tax, in that form of exaction, in twenty-four hours. This was spoken at a time when a clear revenue of over $7,000,000 was derived annually from the British post.

Men were set to work in calculations. It was found that the whole expense of conveying a letter did not average more than the fractional part of a penny, and the people deemed that exactions in this particular were the most cruel and odious of all. Rowland Hill and his party prevailed.

On the 10th January, 1840, the present Penny-post System went into effect by acclamation. It provides for no rate, whatever the distance, other than 1d on a letter of half an ounce weight. The opponents of the system cried out that it would prove ruinous to the government, and at first they seemed to be sustained by facts.

The clear revenue from the department was, in

1801	£911,875	1828	1,632,267
1805	1,119,429	1830	1,517,951
1810	1,365,261	1835	1,564,457
1815	1,619,196	1839	1,649,088
1820	1,465,605		

In 1840 it fell, under the new system, as low as £495,914. But from that period to this, there has been a constant augmentation, indicating strong prospects of a recovery of the full amount of former periods. The clear revenue of the department, in 1841, was £564,407, and in 1842, £700,000, which rate of increase, if preserved until 1850, would reach the *ultimatum* of the old system.

The number of letters received in the London General Post Office. were, in

1839	21,892
1840	48,055
1841	69,818

And for the whole kingdom, the number of letters passing through the mail, was for every

10,000 in	1839	23,821 in	1841
19,485 "	1840	25,521 "	1842

According to the report of the Postmaster-General, submitted to Congress in 1843, it appears that the whole transportation of mail at that period was 20 million miles in Great Britain, and 35 millions in the United States. The gross revenue in the former instance being $11,421,907, and in the latter $4,295,925.

The influence of the British system of reduced postage operated so strongly on this side of the water, that public sentiment was aroused everywhere in favor of reform. Our old system was conceived to be far more onerous than there was any neeessity for, and it was thought that reduced rates would be equally, if not more advantageous to government.

The following list will show the revenue and expenditures of the Post Office Department in the United States for the years named:

	Revenue.	Expenditure.
1829	$1,707,418	$1,782,132
1830	1,850,580	1,932,207
1831	1,997,811	1,936,122
1832	2,268,570	2,266,171
1833	2,617,011	2,930,414
1834	2,827,749	2,910,605
1835	2,993,556	2,757,350
1836	3,408,323	.....
1837	4,100,605	.....
1838	4,235,077	4,621,837
1839	4,477,614	4,654,718
1840	4,539,265	4,759,110
1845	4,320,731	4,289,841

No measure was more universally popular than the Post Office Law which went into effect in July last; and although many of its defects were soon perceived, and grievous ones, too, yet as a whole it was an earnest of an approach to a correct system. There is no principle more strictly correct than this, that such a monopoly as the Post Office Department ought never to be tolerated as a source of

revenue, and we are ready to admit another principle deducible from the first, that the Post Office ought to be supported entirely from its own incomes. With these two principles and with judicious legislation, we do not despair of arriving ultimately at the best results.

By the Postmaster's (Mr. Johnson's) late Report, it would seem that the new system has worked badly, and does not promise for the future a sufficient ratio of improvement. There will be a falling off from the net revenue of the last fiscal year, $1,328,977, about 45 per cent. when the next accounts are made up, in July 1846; and for the following year the deficiency is estimated at $1,000,000. Mr. Johnson proposes a return, to some extent, to former principles; he would have the scale of postage range at 5, 10, and 15 cents, according to distance, on a single letter of a *quarter* of an ounce, until 1848, when the present system shall again go into operation.

In reference to the Postmaster's suggestions about returning to former rates on printed matter, and limiting the number of editors' exchanges, we, as a matter of course, from our connection with the press, entertain different opinions. It does appear to us, however, on principle, that the smallest possible tax ought to be imposed upon the "daily bread" of mind: intelligence ought to travel with the winds, and with as little interruption.

We had prepared notes for an elaborate article on the Post Office systems of the old and new world, and exceedingly regret that want of space on the present occasion restricts us to the meagre observations made. We shall however recur to the subject in ensuing numbers.

Art. XII.—COMMERCIAL JURISPRUDENCE.

LAW IN LOUISIANA.

The theory and practice of law in Louisiana, are both peculiar to the State. We have the corner-stone of Roman jurisprudence, upon which is built our temple of Themis. Lord Holt observed, "that the laws of all nations are doubtless raised out of the civil law;" and we take them as they are, with no pretended improvement of ours, save that which the advanced age of the world requires. Of all sciences, law is the most progressive; but reason is immutable, and the civil law is based entirely upon it. There is little need, therefore, of change in *principle*. Pothier, the perspicuous expounder of Roman law, is as high authority at Westminster Hall as in Louisiana; and, disguise the fact as much as they may, who think the common law the gathered wisdom of a thousand years, the civilians were a thousand years in advance of them, and gave the light which they arrogantly assume to themselves. The beautiful proportions of our system must strike the observer with feelings not dissimilar to those produced by Rome's great church. There is a symmetry about it that the piecemeal monument of common law does not present.

We would raise the noble science of the law still higher than it now is, either in England or America; and we believe this may be done by proper means. Universities for the education of students in the

profession, such as the new Constitution of this State provides for, will do much to give it character at home and abroad.*

We think that our code is more nearly perfect than any other known system of law; but still our legislators have an arduous duty to perform in lopping off from it some of its excrescences. We can exalt our work to a loftier pinnacle, and the law department of the university about to be established will do it. But we do not make this essay without object. We believe that many of our distant readers feel a deep interest in our laws, from obvious reasons—their nature, extent and operation—and we perhaps giving a succinct view of them in our succeeding numbers.

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SOUTHERN AND WESTERN STATISTICS, COMMERCE, AGRICULTURE, &c.

1.—AGRICULTURE OF THE SOUTH AND SOUTH-WEST.

Cotton.—It is now discovered that the crop will exceed in amount the low estimates which were indulged in certain portions of the country. For this reason, and in consequence of the panic in relation to railroad schemes and breadstuffs in Europe, heavy markets and low prices may result. Such a state of things would greatly discourage our planters who have been anxiously looking for a return of former prosperity. The great cry for the last few years of over-production has been ringing in their ears, and the Convention at Memphis, in an able report, endorsed it, and recommended a scheme of reduction. In answer to a similar recommendation, we have before us a paper from the State Agricultural Society of South Carolina, embodying views widely at variance with those of the Convention. Without pretending to give any opinion upon the subject, where such great authorities disagree, we will make a few extracts from the paper:

"Your committee are fully convinced that there is not now, as is supposed, an over-production of cotton; for there cannot be an over-production of an article which is annually consumed. That this is the case with cotton, appears from the statistical table.

"The situation of distress in which we have been, and possibly still are, is not the result of over-production. It resulted from the visionary speculations of great financial and commercial schemes. Many indulged in fancies, illusory as the South Sea scheme, and to the full as impossible as the discovery of the famous El Dorado. Such men gave to everything a fancied value, which increased as their imaginations expanded—credit was unnaturally extended, until debt exceeded every possible means of payment. Hence the revulsion of 1837 and 1838, and the prostration of much real but more fancied wealth.

"At the present moment, we are recovering from that by natural and proper means. Our cotton, at low prices, is paying annually our debts, and compelling us to reduce our luxuries and to pursue a just economy. The currency is gradually expanding, through the operations of our well-regulated banks, so as to meet the wants of the people; and had it not been for the unprecedented drought and consequent loss of crops, wherewith it has pleased God to visit us, we should in the next year have reached a point of comparative safety and ease from the past pressure.

"The extension of the production of cotton is met by a correspondent demand. Nearly one-half of the population of Europe, especially France and Germany, have not now the comfort of a cotton shirt or cotton jacket. It has, therefore, this field as an untried market, but one which is every day opening more and more to our enterprise. To this must be added, that perseverance on our part will drive all

* An University shall be established in the city of New Orleans. It shall be composed of four Faculties, to wit: one of Law, one of Natural Sciences, and one of Letters. It shall be called the "University of Louisiana," and the Medical College of Louisiana, as at present organized, shall constitute the Faculty of Medicine. Arts. 137, 138.

competitors from the field; and when they turn their attention to some other branch of business, they must be common customers. Our American cotton, and very probably our American manufactures are, in time, and that a very short one, to be used by every civilized inhabitant, and also many a savage one of the world.

"But if the production of cotton in the North American States were reduced one-half, the amount of misery which it would cause can hardly be realized. The cotton planter supports millions of human beings, and clothes hundreds of millions more. Let him extend his philanthropic labors, he will be benefited by them, and countless thousands will call him blessed. At this time, every indication points to an increase of price, such as the opening of the Chinese trade, the general soundness of the currency, abundance of the poor in England, the possible repeal of the duty on raw cotton in every country, arising from competition among the manufacturers, and the unprecedented demand for machinery in England, on the Continent, and in this country.

"If, however, the cotton crop is to be given up one-half, to what else can the planter of the South so profitably turn his attention? To grain? He already, in ordinary years, produces twice as much as the Middle States, and about one-eighth more than the West. In Indian corn alone, the produce of the South, by her last census, was 300,000,000 bushels. If the planter of cotton is engaged in an unprofitable business, much more is the grain raiser. The interest on capital invested in agriculture at the North is less than three per cent.; here it is about four per cent. That the rice and tobacco culture might be profitably extended in this State, and will be in the South-west and Texas, is true. Millions of acres in South Carolina, including the lower country, are admirably adapted to the raising of rich grasses. This might be added as another branch of industry, from which reasonable profits could be realized, and might very well be added to the cotton planter's income. The business of tanning, and the manufacture of leather, might be, and ought to be enlarged. In this State, all the means of a successful pursuit of this branch of industry are at hand, and within the reach of everyone. Hides, lime, bark, and mechanics (slaves) are abundant. A few years ago, the capital engaged in this branch of industry in Massachusetts was $14,000,000, while that of cotton was $13,000,000, and wool less than $11,000,000.

"Another great inducement to South Carolina to persevere in the cultivation of cotton (where, in reference to quantity, it can be advantageously grown) is, that it is now highly probable that very many planters in Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas, will in future direct their attention to tobacco and sugar. Their lands are well adapted to these productions, and the reduction of the duty on American sugar in Great Britain, is one strong reason why the culture should be extended.

"For these reasons, your committee disapprove of any scheme which would have a tendency materially to abridge the quantity of cotton produced. Indeed, they trust that it will continue to increase, and carry its blessings, as it were, on the wings of the wind, until every inhabitant shall fully realize the benefit of cotton fabrics for all the purposes to which wool, flax, silk and hemp have been heretofore devoted.

W. B. SEABROOK,
JOHN BELTON O'NEALL."

The following tables were annexed by the committee to their report:

Import of Cotton into Europe.

From	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
United States	1,387,000	1,534,000	1,904,000	1,682,000
Brazil	100,000	104,000	115,000	123,000
West Indies	72,000	72,000	49,000	47,000
East Indies	324,000	316,000	227,000	299,000
Egypt	123,000	108,000	169,000	126,000

Import and Consumption of Cotton in Europe, reduced to Bales of 300 pounds each.

Years.	Imports.	Consumption.
1841	2,291,010	2,215,026
1842	2,477,266	2,422,926
1843	2,949,000	2,654,000
1844	2,736,843	2,667,469

From the above it appears, that in 1841, the imports exceeded the consumption 75,984; 1842—54,340; 1843—295,000; 1844—69,374.

Stock 1st of January.

1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.
777,610.....	863,421.....	926,102.....	1,239,000.....	1,321,726

Importation.—It will be seen (says the circular) that there is a decrease from the United States of about 200,000 bags, and from Egypt of 60,000 bags, while from the East Indies, there is an increase of 55,000 bags, and a trifle from the Brazils, which leaves, on the aggregate, a deficiency of about 200,000 bags; but the excess in the stocks at the beginning of the year, made up the aggregate supply fully to what it was in the previous year.

The above is extracted from the circular of Coleman & Stotterfoght, dated Liverpool, 31st January, 1845.

2.—AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS OF LOUISIANA.

The Chamber of Commerce, of New Orleans, have lately presented to the General Government an elaborate paper, showing the resources, the products, the wants, and the necessities of Louisiana. We have read the paper with much pleasure and instruction. The Chamber informs us that

"The agricultural productions of Louisiana may be considered as confined to cotton, sugar, molasses, and rice; the latter, however, to a limited extent, and far short of what is required for consumption. Corn and hay are raised on the plantations for their own consumption, and some of the former even for sale, but to so small an extent as not to be worthy of note. The quantity of both grown in the State is far from being a full supply for local consumption, and large quantities from other States are annually consigned and sold here. The same in regard to potatoes, peas, beans, onions, &c. Other grain than corn is not cultivated in the State."

The cotton crop of the State is estimated at about 350,000 bags of 400 pounds each—varying however with the season.

The amount of sugar produced for the last five years reached 685,000 hhds., of 1,000 pounds each, being an average of 137,000 hhds. a year. For every hogshead of sugar, the yield of molasses is about 50 gallons.

Horses, mules, hogs, and provisions sufficient for consumption are not raised in this State, except to a small extent in the western districts. Louisiana is dependent upon the West for all her bacon, pork and butcher's meat, all breadstuffs and grain, and horse and cattle feed. The amount of hay from the East and West received annually, is about 60,000 bales.

3.—MILITARY AND NAVAL DEFENSES OF THE GULF OF MEXICO.

In March last, Maj. Wm. H. Chase, United States Engineer, published a memorial in relation to this important subject, and although his suggestions were thought to be on too extensive a scale for the wants and resources of the country, his remarks are deserving of serious attention. We would recommend the memorial, from the great ability with which it is drawn up, to general perusal, and at the same time would call attention to the admirable paper of Lieut. Maury, on a similar subject, first published in the Southern Quarterly Review, and lately republished in the Southern Literary Messenger. Mr. Chase says:

"The military defense of the Gulf coast within our limits commenced when Mr. Calhoun was Secretary of War, and urged forward by that distinguished statesman, has not been disregarded by the Government, especially since the present able Chief Engineer has been its military adviser. The approaches to New Orleans and Mobile have been occupied by strong works. The naval position at Pensacola is already surrounded with fortifications, the completion of which rests with a small redoubt in the progress of construction."

We give the following other extracts from the body of his memorial:

"Considering that war steamers would enter largely, if not exclusively, into our naval forces in the Gulf of Mexico, it is important that convenient depots for coal should be established. Deposits of coal could be made at Bahia Honda and at Key West. At Tortugas a three years' supply for thirty steamers could be constantly maintained. A position for a coal depot at some point on the western coast of Florida is certainly necessary. Tampa Bay would probably afford the requisite depth of water for heavy steamers, and convenient sites for the depot and its defense. Thus held, it would also give protection to vessels seeking ref

uge from an enemy. A coal depot would be established at Pensacola, and at Mobile Point, under the protection of Fort Morgan. Another depot for coal would afford great facilities to steam operations if established at Ship Island. A strong battery, but not costly, would protect the harbor. This depot would be easier of access than the one at Fort Jackson on the Mississippi, and would afford supplies not only to the light steamers cruising along the coast, but to those of the heaviest class. A depot at Fort Jackson would be necessary to enable the steamers descending from Memphis to take in a full supply of coals before proceeding to sea.

"It is in place here to exhibit a statement near the truth of the cost of the public works, military and naval, already completed within the Gulf of Mexico, and those necessary to be executed:

At Fort Livingston (may be completed in one year),	$300,000
" Jackson (in course of repairs),	700,000
" St. Phillip, (do.)	51,000
" Bienvenue,	120 000
" Dupré,	25,000
" Pike,	400,000
" Wood,	410,000
" Morgan (in course of repairs),	1,100 000
" Pickens,	740 000
" McRee,	335,000
" Barrancas,	334,000
Advanced redoubt of do. (in course of construction),	150,000
Amount for fortifications,	$4,564,000
Probable amount expended at Navy Yard, Pensacola,	$ 600,000
Sundry additions and improvements, exclusive of docks,	1,000,000
For three Dry Docks,	2 100,000
Total for Pensacola,	$3,700,000
A Dry Dock at Key West is indispensable,	$500,000
Store-houses in connection therewith,	200 000
Two floating docks of some description must be arranged for Tortugas, say of iron,	300,000
Store-houses in addition to what may be afforded by the works	500,000
Establishment at Memphis,	1,000,000
Total of naval fixtures indispensable and necessary to be accomplished as soon as possible,	$6 200 000
To which add, in time of war, 30 steamers of war of 2,500 tons burden, built at S. Louis, Cincinnati, Memphis, New Orleans, and Pensacola, roughly but of great strength and speed, completely armed and equipped, at $400,000 each	12 000,000
Grand total of naval means	$18 200 000
The defense of Key West will cost	1 500,000
That of Tortugas	1,500,000
That of Bahia Honda, (probably)	200,000
That of Tampa Bay, (do.)	200 000
That of Ship Island, (do.)	100,000
Grand total of military means necessary to be applied,	$3,500,000
Total do. already applied,	4,564,000
Grand total of naval means, of which $12,000,000 are for a movable force, and belongs as much to the Atlantic coast as to the Gulf,	18,200,000
Total of naval means already applied,	600,000
Grand total for Gulf defense, part of which can be applied directly to the protection of the Atlantic coast, while the whole acts indirectly in accomplishing the object,	$26,264,000

"This large sum (though not too large for the interests to be protected) would be applied to more than one half the surface and population of the United States,

if considered geographically and dependently of the country west of the Alleghany mountains. But its consideration involves every section of the country, and none more so than the extreme sections of the north-east—Maine having as direct interest in the defense of the Gulf of Mexico as if it were applied to her own coasts her ships and carrying trade requiring it as much as the safe transit of the vast productions of the West. So that, while the consideration of defensive points of the north and south Atlantic coasts has for the most part a local tendency, that of the Gulf of Mexico embraces the interests of the country at large. A quotation from a letter of a distinguished gentleman, formerly at the head of the War Department, is apposite to the subject, 'And it must be borne in mind, that the evils which would result from the temporary occupation of the delta of the Mississippi, or from a successful blockade of the coasts of the Gulf of Mexico, would not only injure the prosperity of these States, but would deeply affect the interests of the whole Union; no reasonable expense, therefore, ought to be spared to guard against such a casualty.'"

4.—TEXAS.

An extensive emigration is now in progress, from various sources, which will soon throw into cultivation much of this interesting, but now almost unoccupied territory. According to the latest advices, ship loads of emigrants are daily in arrival. Those from Europe are mostly Germans, who have always made industrious and valuable population. Many are removing from the South and West to the same point; and favorable inducements are held out by the government.

As Texas forms a part of the United States, we cannot but enter deeply into the progress of affairs there, and at this time everything may be considered as most propitious.

We introduce a paper once presented by Gen. Almonte to the Central Mexican government, in relation to the importance of Texas.

"The abundance of navigable rivers and excellent harbors, gives to this country an immense advantage over the other States of the Mexican republic, which, unfortunately, do not possess similar facilities for exportation, and whose foreign commerce can only be passive for a series of years to come. On the other hand the climate is perfectly adapted to the inhabitants of Europe, and emigration is so considerable, that in less than ten years, its population has been quintupled. Lastly, Texas is the bravest division of our republic, and God grant that, through our own negligence, so valuable a portion of our country may not be lost to us! The territory of Texas is vast, and adapted to the cultivation of cotton, tobacco, sugar-cane, Indian corn, rice, wheat, potatoes, beans, olives, grapes, etc. The soil best adapted to the growth of cotton and tobacco is to be found on the section immediately on the coast, and the margins of rivers; that of the more inland districts is better calculated for wheat, olives, sugar-cane, potatoes, &c. But, generally speaking, the production of any one part of Texas is common to the whole territory, in greater or less abundance."

5.—COMMERCE OF THE OHIO RIVER.

The following facts, for which we are indebted to the high authority of the Convention, will be valuable to all.

The valley of the Ohio river is bounded on the east by the Alleghany mountains, and by the Highlands, separating its waters from the great lakes on the north. Its length is 1,000 miles, breadth 200, area 200,000 square miles. Its government is divided between eight States; its population is 5,600,000; its annual produce 327,000,000 bushels wheat, rye, Indian corn, oats, buckwheat, barley, and potatoes, and 203,000,000 pounds hemp, tobacco, cotton, and sugar. The coal mine on the Monongahela river reached, last year, 13,000,000 bushels. The annual produce of Pittsburgh, Cincinnati, and Louisville, taken together, is $30,000,000.

Steamboat tonnage of the United States—365,299, of which 145,311 registered in western waters. Lake steam tonnage, 24,486, each steamer averaging 250 tons. Number of flat-boats 6,000.

The navigation of the Ohio river, on the authority of the engineer, may be prolonged, by proper expenditure, at least six weeks for boats of the ordinary class. The great obstruction in the river at the falls, near Louisville, has not been obviated by the Louisville and Portland Canal.

6.—TRADE OF PITTSBURGH.

The shipments from Pittsburgh to the sea-board, by the Pennsylvania canals, from the 10th of March last to the 30th November, the entire period of navigation, were as follows:—

Flour, bbls.	82,092	Hemp, lbs.	865,441
Beef and Pork, do.	4,575	Feathers, do.	783,908
Bacon, lbs.	15,155,344	Deer, Buffalo, & Moose skins	641,477
Butter and Cheese, lbs.	1,126,750	Furs and Peltry, lbs.	91,066
Tallow, do.	422,583	Castings, do.	3,966,728
Rags, do.	417,539	Groceries	1,063,472
Leaf Tobacco, do.	24,015,613	Number of boats cleared	3,167
Wool, do.	3,776,570	Passengers—miles traveled	1,365,735
Cotton, do.	965,041		

7.—TRADE OF BALTIMORE.

EXPORTS.

Tobacco—quarter ending 30th September, 1843	18,752 hhds.		$842,332
" " " " 1844	18,421 "		804,642
" " " " 1845	26,533 "		1,142,178
Flour— " " " 1843	93,509 bbls.		461,902
" " " " 1844	82,167 "		346,153
" " " " 1845	68,812 "		305,234
Total value domestic produce exported for the quarter:—			
In American vessels,		$1,372,077	
In Foreign vessels,		530,050	
Total quarter in 1845,			1,902,127
" " 1844,			1,573,787
" " 1843,			1,637,198

8.—TRADE OF CHARLESTON.

Imports and Exports for the last six years.

	Imports.	Exports.
1840	$2,058,870	$10,036,789
1841	1,500,000	8,040,275
1842	1,395,465	7,525,723
1843	1,294,709	7,760,809
1844	1,131,515	7,433,281
1845	822,602	8,630,890

9.—COMMERCE OF ST. LOUIS.

This growing city bids fair to be one of the very first in all the country west of the Alleghany mountains. We have seen it grow up in a few years, as it were, almost by magic; and the natural advantages which belong to it are unrivaled.

In 1830, the population was	5,852	Taxable property,	$1,144,000
In 1835, " "	8,316	" "	2,222,000
In 1840, " "	16,291	" "	8,658,000
In 1845, " "	40,000	" "	13,607,000

In steamboat tonnage is 20,424 against 14,727 in 1842.

Number of steamboat arrivals in 1839,	1476
" " " in 1840,	1720
" " " in 1844,	2105
The commerce of St. Louis is valued at $50,000,000.	
Lead exported in 1845,	$1,600,000
Flour " "	1,200,000
Tobacco " "	1,000,000
Hemp " "	700,000

From the 1st of September, 1843, to the 1st of October, 1845, there were received at St. Louis:

Lead,	1,314,366 pigs.	Hemp,	99,279 bales.
Flour,	216,849 bbls.	Tobacco,	22,541 hhds.
Pork,	49,635 bbls.	Whiskey,	53,818 bbls.
Lard,	22,606 bbls.	Sugar,	18 090 hhds.
Lard,	22,618 kegs.	Coffee,	84,147 bags.
Pork in bulk,	410,766 lbs.	Tea,	2,076 chest.
Bacon in bulk,	205,601 lbs.	Tea,	2,753 hf. chests.
Bacon,	27,206 casks.		

The receipts of lead exceeded those of the previous two years 275,496 pigs; and for the ten months, ending 30th September, 1845, there was an excess of 72,201 bbls. flour over the preceding ten months, and an excess of 1,897 hhds. tobacco, 6,917 bbls. of whiskey, 3,060 hhds. sugar, and 9,333 bags coffee.

The obstruction at the bar of St. Louis renders the existence of this large commerce exceedingly precarious, and threatens seriously the prosperity of the place. We have a memorial from the citizens before us, which uses the following strong language:

"A few hundred thousand dollars, properly expended in making dykes from Bloody Island to the Illinois shore, will prevent all these threatened evils, which have probably so far been rather accelerated by the unfinished works, commenced by the government at the foot of Bloody Island. This work is *national*, and not local in its character; for its advantages will accrue to the General Government, as well as to the people of almost the whole Valley of the Mississippi. The fact that it would save from ruin the 40,000 inhabitants of St. Louis, and also benefit the adjacent portions of Missouri and Illinois, should certainly take nothing from its claims, as one of the western interests worthy the attention of Congress."

10.—LAKE DEFENSES AND COMMERCE.

THE SHIP CANAL.

There is some diversity of opinion as to the practicability of this connection of the waters of the Mississippi and Illinois rivers with the Northern lakes. Much has, of late days, been said upon the subject; and the Memphis Convention endorsed the scheme with its hearty approval. Could the connection be attained, nothing would be of larger importance to the commerce and defenses of these sections. The conception is a grand one, and worthy of our country. We should be then in the condition of an island—if not a "sea-girt isle," at least an island around which a navy might make its cruise, if constructed for the purpose.

With the proposed canal our naval steamers, constructed with a light draught of water, could have continual passage from the Gulf States to the lakes, conveying troops, arms and ammunition, ready to be used at any point that might be required, which would be a great matter in case of a blockade of the Atlantic coast. Upon the lakes the most brilliant achievements of our navy were performed in the last war, and Great Britain has been ever disposed to turn her attention thitherward at the first prospect of hostility. She had in operation there, at a vast expenditure of time, labor, and money, in 1812, we are informed on high authority, a sloop-of-war—the Psyche, the timber of which was framed in England, after being transported there from Canada; the frame-work was sent back to Montreal, thence in carts around the Rapids, afterwards in batteaux to Prescott, formed into rafts there, and floated to Kingston, to be finally put together, and launched at the enormous expense, all things included, of five millions of dollars! Of so much importance was naval strength upon the lakes considered. To prevent all of the difficulty and expense attending the building of the Psyche, Britain has already provided herself with a canal which opens the lakes to her navy, entering from the sea; and if we are behind her in the enterprise, it may be to our infinite mortification and regret at no distant period.

The treaty of Ghent stipulated that neither England nor America should have a larger force on the lakes than was necessary for the protection of their revenue regulations. The former government soon, however, commenced a ship canal from the St. Lawrence to the lakes; and another canal, the Welland, from Erie to Lake Ontario; by this means ensuring an avenue at all times for a large naval force.

The following statements were made by Mr. Walters, of Illinois, in a report presented at Memphis:

In 1824 there was but one steamer on Lake Erie, and in 1836 but one on Lake

Michigan. In 1833 there were eleven steamers on the lakes; in 1839 a line of steamboats made the distance from Chicago to Buffalo in 16 days. The number of steamboats on the lakes at the present time is fifty-six, and nineteen steam-propellers, costing $3,000,000; also 650 vessels—of the total, 50,000 tonnage.

In 1841, the export and import trade of the lakes, exclusive of Buffalo, was $65,800,000, and at the present time is not short of $100,000,000.

The exports of Michigan amount to $5,000,000 a year, and are increasing.

From Chicago, of this year's crop of wheat in Illinois, 2,000 000 bushels will be shipped.

The commerce of Cleveland in 1844, was $11,000.

The lakes furnish an outlet for the products of a population of not less than three millions of people.

11.—WESTERN MARINE HOSPITALS.

This is a subject of great interest to the cities of the Mississippi river and those on its tributaries. The matter was urged upon the Western Convention and ably reported on. The number of boatmen on the Mississippi is now 1,700, and taking into account those in keel and flat boats, the whole is swelled into the large aggregate of 3,400. Some other provision ought certainly to be made for these than is at present furnished. By an act of Congress, passed in 1798, a permanent fund was provided out of the wages of seamen for hospital purposes, to the benefit of which boatmen were afterwards admitted. The subject was again introduced into Congress in 1837, but nothing effected. We have a memorial of the city of St. Louis before us, which is worthy of being read in this connection.

12.—HEALTH OF SOUTHERN AND WESTERN CITIES.

The following table was lately drawn up by an eminent Southern physician, and will be interesting to our readers:

St. Louis, Missouri, general average of deaths in proportion to population... Average for the year 1844,.....	According to Dr. D. V. Fourgeaud, in the St. Louis Medical Journal,.....	1 in 23 1 in 23
New Orleans, Louisiana, general average annual deaths to population,		1 in 33
Charleston, South Carolina, average of 17 years, from 1828 to 1844,..		1 in 43-75
" " General average for the last five years,..		1 in 50-22
" " Average for 1844–5,.....		1 in 51-50

By this it will appear that New Orleans compares advantageously with St. Louis in health; and that Charleston is far ahead of either. In fact, by an extension of the table to include other important cities in Europe and America, Charleston will be found pre-eminent among all, and may be fairly stated from the experience of the past few years, to be the healthiest city in the world. This state of things evidences a wonderful improvement there.

Paris, annual average of deaths to population,.....		1 in 32
New York, " " "		1 in 37
London, " " "		1 in 40
Baltimore, " " "		1 in 41
Glasgow, " " "		1 in 44-45
Philadelphia, " " "		1 in 45-63
New York, whites for 1823-4-5-6 "		1 in 40-15
Philadelphia, whites for 1823-4-5-6 "		1 in 42-03

In reference to New Orleans, there is much to hope for in the future. The scourge of yellow fever is yielding to treatment and police regulations. A committee of the New Orleans Medical Society, reported on a paper submitted to them by Dr. Hort, in February last, on "Quarantine Laws:

"1st. That they believe yellow fever to be a disease of local origin, and that it is not an imported disease.

"2d. That it is not contagious.

"3d. That it may yield to judicious police regulations."

We make the following extract from Dr. Hort's paper:

"If we consider the history of yellow fever for the last one hundred and fifty years, we shall find that it prevailed once all along our Atlantic coast, as far north as Portland, Maine; also in the southern parts of Europe; that its limits are now

twelve degrees farther south; that this has been brought about by changes of climate, over which man has no control; and also by police regulations, and the general improvements which have kept pace with and resulted from the progress of civilization; and that this has been eminently the case in the city of New Orleans. This should encourage us to persevere in our efforts.

"Let the measures suggested be adopted and pushed forward by enlightened and energetic action, and there is little reason to doubt that, in the course of a few years, New Orleans would be exempt from the yellow fever. It would no longer be within the reach of that pestilence, and at the same time the very measures that would bring about this result, would protect us from the other malignant fevers of the summer and fall, which are peculiar to our climate and position. There would be no obstacle to the progress of this city. In less than half a century she would have so far accomplished her high destiny, as to be the first city in the western hemisphere, in wealth, in population, in commerce and general prosperity."

13.—STATE DEBTS.

The following is the present indebtedness of the several Southern and Western States named:

Virginia (Am. Almanac, p. 251),		$7,503,743 54
South Carolina,		3,021,672 28
Tennessee (Governor's last message). Total State indebtedness, after deducting $53,000 in bonds canceled during the present year, and $20,000 in bonds canceled heretofore		3,370,416 66
Alabama (Am. Almanac, p. 264),		9,215,555 55
Kentucky, " " "		4,269,000 00
Ohio, " " "	Foreign, $16,915,682 00 Domestic, 2,320,769 28	19,276,751 78
Michigan (Governor's Message),		4,077,177 00
Indiana, " "		12,218,000 00
Missouri (Am. Almanac),		997,000 00
Texas (doubtful), stated as		8,169,000 00

14.—EDUCATION IN NEW ORLEANS.

It must be gratifying to the friends of letters to mark the progress which education is making in the great emporium of the South and West. A right spirit seems to be now in operation, and results the most happy are witnessed. No city can advance to any elevation without providing the means of developing the minds of its growing population. The subject of public instruction forced itself upon the convention of Louisiana, lately in session, and appears conspicuous among the provisions of the constitution to which it gave birth. New Orleans has already attained to a proud pre-eminence in this respect, among southern cities. She has discarded mere charity schools forever, and adopted the true system of common schools. And what has been the result already?

Three years ago there was opened in the Second Municipality a school, with some dozen scholars of both sexes, and before the expiration of one year, the number in the same section increased to eight hundred. Of the two thousand three hundred children in the municipality at that period, three hundred were in private schools, which left, of course, at least one thousand in no school at all. The State appropriated for that year only about two dollars per head for each pupil educated, leaving the rest to be supplied by the corporation.

In 1843 the number at public schools was one thousand one hundred and fifty-six; at private schools four hundred. In December 1844, there were one thousand five hundred and seventy-four public school scholars; and in various ways during the year, upward of two thousand five hundred in all, reaped the advantages of the system. The number of teachers was thirty-three—ten male and twenty-three female; and the whole number of children in the municipality not attending any school that year, was reduced down to seven hundred and thirty-six.

It is expected that the report for the present year will show a still larger reduction of the children unprovided for, and that under the operation of so excellent a system, before very long not a child will be without the means of obtaining a fair and liberal education in New Orleans—"a consummation most devoutly to be wished for."

15.—SAFETY OF RAILROAD TRAVELING.

Dr. Overton, of Tennessee, in a late speech delivered at Nashville, advanced some interesting facts, which must settle the question forever in favor of railroad conveyance even with the most sceptical. It appears that,

"In five years upward of 44 millions of people have traveled over the different railways in Great Britain with the loss of only ten lives. This is so astonishing as to defy credibility, if it had not been verified and sanctioned by the deliberate investigation and report of an enlightened committee seeking the truth, and with no motive to mislead. Such is the result of British experience. The minister of public works in France, in an official report made in 1844, stated that there were six railways terminating in the city of Paris—that over these roads there had passed, from the 1st day of January, 1844, to the 30th day of June, 1844, 1,889,718 persons, who had traveled 370,600 miles, and that not a single individual had sustained an injury. The same minister reports that from 1836 to 1844 there were annually an average of 9 killed and 283 wounded in the city of Paris alone, in common road carriages. There had passed over the Schenectady and Utica railway in New York, 800,000 persons without an injury to one single person. British, American, and French experience united in establishing the conclusion, that it was the safest of all modes of conveyance.

16.—MEXICAN GULF RAILWAY

In 1837, a company was formed and obtained a charter for the prosecution of a railroad to Lake Borgne, and onward to the Gulf of Mexico. The company, after constructing about fourteen miles of the work, were compelled, by pecuniary difficulties to desist. The road was then sold and bought in by a few individuals, who have obtained a charter for the continuation of the work, and now propose to transfer all their rights over to a company to be formed with a capital of *one million* dollars.

By the estimate of the engineer it appears that eighteen miles are finished, leaving eight more to reach the lake, which can be accomplished in four months, at an expense of $24,181 76. Should the road be constructed to the terminus opposite Malheureux Islands, fourteen miles farther, the whole cost will be $79,970 20.

The following extract from the proprietors' circular will give an idea of the work:

"There is no object of such paramount importance to the commercial prosperity of the city of New Orleans, as a safe, easy and expeditious communication with the seat of government at Washington, and the great commercial cities on the Atlantic. There is nothing that can add so much to the health, comfort and pleasure of its citizens, as a rapid and convenient mode of conveyance to the sea-shore during our long and sultry summers, and in fact this alone seems wanting to render New Orleans, at all times and seasons, one of the most pleasant and healthy cities of the United States. On looking at a map of this and the adjoining State eastward, it will be seen that the communication with Mobile, and consequently with all the eastern cities, will be considerably shortened, and made far more easy and direct by a railroad communication with Lake Borgne and Proctor's Shell Bank; but should the shareholders see fit to extend the road fourteen miles farther to the shore of the lake near the Malheureux Islands, great natural facilities for a safe harbor will be found, and the terminus will there be within eighteen miles or less of Pass Christian, thirty-six or thirty-seven miles of East Pascagoula, and within one hundred and twenty-five miles of Mobile by the steamboat route. A railroad will undoubtedly very soon be made from Mobile to East Pascagoula, a distance of about forty miles, offering the finest timber on the very ground, and every other facility for constructing a railroad. Then the distance from New Orleans can easily be accomplished at the ordinary speed of railroads in the United States, in from five to six hours; but without waiting even until this be accomplished, the distance from the proposed terminus of the road to Mobile can easily be done by a steamboat in ten or eleven hours, thus accelerating the mail conveyance twelve hours at least between New Orleans and the great eastern cities. When the proprietors consider how much has been accomplished, and that the States of Georgia and Alabama are both most actively engaged in completing and filling up the only break in the railroad communication, and that one hundred and thirty miles only has to be made to put an end to stage conveyance, and give an almost continuous line of railroad communication with the Atlantic cities; and

that the Mexican Gulf road, although the last, is a very important link in the great chain, they must consider this undertaking as one of high importance."

17.—WHITNEY'S OREGON RAILROAD.

Report of the committee on roads and canals, presented at the last Congress, in relation to the memorial of Mr. Whitney referred to their consideration.

REPORT:—The committee on roads and canals, to whom was referred the memorial of Asa Whitney, of the State of New York, praying the appropriation of certain public lands to construct a railroad from Lake Michigan to the shore of the Pacific, made the following report:

"Your committee having had referred to them this memorial, within a few days only of the close of the session, have had very brief time to consider a subject of such magnitude, and involving considerations numerous and momentous; and they have found it impossible to give to its details the reflection necessary to form a specific opinion as to the expediency or practicability of the project.

"Many facts and calculations necessary to form, upon authentic basis, such an opinion, are not now within the reach of your committee. So far, however, as their investigations have reached, and to the extent of the data before them, your committee have seen nothing that proves the impracticability of the plan; and they are unanimous in their opinion of the vast importance of the subject, and, in their judgment, that it is one which well merits and ought to obtain the careful and deliberate attention of Congress, at a period of greater leisure than the present, being convinced that there are very few subjects which offer themselves to the consideration of Congress, that are better worth its patient and deliberate investigation.

"Your committee are deeply impressed with the immense and far-reaching influence which the construction of a road to a distant territory, claimed by the United States government, but not at present fully possessed by her, is likely to exert upon our national progress and destiny; even upon the gravest question connected with that destiny—the question of war or peace itself.

"Public attention is already attracted to the subject; public opinion in regard to it will mature in the recess which is before us; and a project so vast cannot with propriety, as your committee think, be entered upon, even in its preparatory steps, in a manner so hasty, and with lights so imperfect, as, if now undertaken, it must be.

"Your committee are farther unanimously of opinion, that, if undertaken, it should not be constructed by any appropriation of money from the treasury, but solely under some suitable arrangement, by a grant of public lands. And as the public domain of the United States is rapidly taken up, year by year, your committee, while they deprecate over hasty action, feel also the necessity that the plan, if practicable and expedient, should not be too long delayed.

"Your committee offer no opinion as to the terms or manner in which a portion of the public lands may be made available to construct this railroad, as time permitted them not to go into the discussion of that part of the subject.

"All which is respectfully submitted.

"ROBERT DALE OWEN, *Chairman*."

FOREIGN COMMERCE.

1.—CIVILIZING INFLUENCES OF COMMERCE.

"THE first seats of commerce were also the first seats of civilization," says Heeren; "Exchange of merchandise leads to exchange of ideas, and by the mutual friction was first kindled the sacred flame of humanity." This is a striking and graphic expression of a great truth. Commerce began by an interchange or barter of the mere necessaries of life. The planter of the river's side offered bread in exchange for the salt and dried flesh of the hunter of the desert. But to this market of food, those who had none to offer brought, to obtain it, spices and frankincense, and gold and silver and precious stones, as they could obtain them. What can be more evident than that the desire for all these in turn was suggested from without, was matter of reciprocal education—a step in civilization.

Here, it was clearly the supply that created the demand; the demand reacting has increased the supply. The Hindoo, with the aid of the Englishman, taught the delights of opium-eating and smoking; the mandarin communicated to "the foreign devils outside, red-bristled and barbarous," the aromatic joys of "the cup that cheers but not inebriates." As *love*, in the most exquisite of German stories, *created a soul* in Undine, so a new want gives a new life to whosoever feels it, provided it can be gratified; and the tea-drinking laundress of the present day knows an enjoyment, a refined one too, and admitting of repetition with fresh delight at "each return of morn and dewy eve," which England's virgin queen, at her breakfast of beef and ale, might have envied, but was perhaps not yet refined enough to relish or appreciate.—S. H. DICKSON, M.D.

2.—BRITISH TARIFF OF DUTIES.

The rates of duties as now existing in Great Britain present in many respects a different phasis from what they did some years ago. The policy of that nation appears to have undergone a change. There has been an increasing influence of the principles of free trade, stimulated by the works of her political writers from Adam Smith down. The object appears now to be to build up commerce in every possible way. Sir Robert Peel lately came forward with a reduction of duty on nearly five hundred articles of imports. American sugar, American flour through Canada, and American rice in the rough, now meet with more favor than formerly. American cotton is altogether unfettered. The old restrictions on tobacco and flour direct are still maintained. We give the following abstract of the present tariff relating to the most important articles of American produce, and on another occasion will revert to the subject more fully than our limited space will at present admit.

COTTON

Is freely admitted, and by treaty, the produce of the United States and the Brazils can be imported alike, in British, American, and Brazil vessels; East India cotton in British vessels alone, when direct from India; it may, however, also be brought here from the United States, &c., in British vessels. The allowances made to the buyers of cotton at this port, are 1lb. per bag or bale for draft, and 4lbs. per 112lbs. for tare; but on East India the tare is 15lbs. per bale, and 8lbs. per half bale.

SUGAR.

By the stat. 8 Vic. 5, sugars not the produce of slave labor, from China, Java, Manilla, &c., are admitted with a duty of—

White clayed, unrefined.....28*s.* per cwt.
Brown clayed, Muscovado.....23½ " "
Molasses.....8½ " "

By an order of Council, 26th April last, American sugars are placed on a footing with those "not the produce of slave labor." The duty on other sugars in Great Britain is, brown 63*s.* per cwt., Molasses 22½*s.* per cwt.

To have the benefit of the order in Council, American shippers must observe certain conditions, viz:

"A declaration must be made by the shipper in writing before the British Consul, that such sugar is 'really and *bona fide*' the growth of this country, upon which a certificate is given in attestation thereof, and is attached to the bill of lading. The master of the vessel by which the sugar is shipped, must deposit with the Collector or Comptroller at the port of importation the above certificate, and make and *sign a declaration*, that such certificate was received by him at the place where such sugar was shipped, "and that the sugar so imported is the same as mentioned therein."

TOBACCO,

The produce of the United States, may be imported in American or British vessels, and on being landed is deposited in the queen's warehouse, where it is allowed to remain 18 months rent free, after which time it is subject to a rent of 1½d per hogshead per week. It may be taken from the warehouse for re-exportation, free of duty, or for home use, in which latter case the whole of the duty is to be paid by the purchaser. Tobacco cannot be imported from America in packages containing less than 100lbs. net, or in vessels of less than 120 tons register; it must invariably be accompanied by a separate manifest, mentioning the marks,

numbers, gross weight, and tare of every package, to which must be affixed the attestation of the master before a British consul.

RICE

May be warehoused for exportation without being subjected to any duty on that account; when taken out for home use, it pays the duty. The real tare of each cask is ascertained, and allowed to the purchaser; on bags from India, the tare is 3lbs. each.

WHEAT, FLOUR, &c.

Under the late Corn Act, our ports are always open at the following scale of duties:—Wheat, whenever the average price shall be per quarter,

70 and under	71*s.*	duty	4*s.*
71 "	72		3
72 "	73		2
73 or more			1

and for every shilling or part of a shilling that the average price shall be under 70*s.*, the duty is then increased 1*s.* per imperial qr. Flour pays a duty per barrel equal to three-fifths of that levied on an imperial quarter of wheat; on barley and Indian corn, if the average price is 26*s.* and under 27*s.*, the duty is 11*s.* per imperial quarter, and for every 1*s.* per quarter it advances higher the duty is decreased 1*s.*, until it reaches 37*s.* per quarter, at which price or upward no more than 1*s.* per quarter is levied; and the duty increases in like manner 1*s.* per quarter, as the price declines under 37*s.* per quarter. On oats, if the average price is 19*s.*, and not exceeding 20*s.*, the duty is 8*s.* per quarter; 19*s.* and under 23*s.*, 6*s.* per quarter, and declining 1*s.* per quarter, until the average increases to 27*s.* and upward, when it is only 1*s.* per quarter.

NAVAL STORES.

One-fifth the amount of turpentine is allowed to the purchaser for tare, after first taking off the draft of 3lbs. per barrel. The leakage on tar may be computed at 5 to 6 per cent.; on that mixed with water an allowance of 1*s.* to 2*s.* per barrel is usually made to the purchaser.

3.—REGULATIONS OF TRADE WITH CHINA.

We make some extracts from the provisions of the treaty concluded on by Mr. Cushing, in relation to our exports and imports to the Chinese empire.

THE TARIFF OF DUTIES TO BE LEVIED ON IMPORTED AND EXPORTED MERCHANDISE AT THE FIVE PORTS.

The duties which it is agreed shall be paid upon goods imported and exported by the United States at the custom-houses of Canton, Amoy, Fuchow, Ningpo, and Shanghai, are as follows:—

EXPORTS.

(A teal is equal to $1 25 @ $1 40; a Mace, 12½ @ 14 cents; a Candareen, 100th part of a Mace; a Catty, 1⅓lbs.)

ARTICLES OF MERCHANDISE.

	Teal.	Mace.	Can.
Teas, spices, &c.			
Tea, formerly divided into fine and native black, and fine and native green teas, per 100 catties	2	5	0
Aniseed Star, per 100 catties	0	5	0
Musk, each catty	0	5	0
Articles of Clothing.			
Wearing Apparel, whether of cotton, woolen, or silk, (formerly divided into cotton clothing, woolen clothing, silk and satin clothing, and velvet,) per 100 catties	0	5	0
Boots and shoes, whether leather, satin, or otherwise, per 100 catties	0	2	0
Fabrics of Hemp, &c.			
Grass cloth, and all cloths of hemp or linen, per 100 catties	1	0	0
Nankeen, and all cloths of cotton, formerly not in the tariff, per 100 catties	1	0	0

Silks, Fabrics of Silk, &c.	m.	c.	c.
Raw silk of any province, per 100 catties	10	0	0
Coarse or refuse silk, per 100 catties	2	0	0
Organzine of all kinds, per 100 catties	10	0	0
Silk riband and thread, per 100 catties	10	0	0
Silk and satin fabrics of all kinds, as crape, lustrings, &c., (formerly classed as silk and satin,) per 100 catties	12	0	0
Silk and cotton mixed fabrics, per 100 catties	3	0	0

Heretofore a farther charge per piece has been levied; the whole duty is now to be paid in one sum, and the farther charge is abolished.

Carpeting, Matting, &c.			
Mats of all kinds, as of straw, rattan, bamboo, &c., per 100 catties	0	2	0

Preserves, &c.			
Preserved Ginger and Fruits of all kinds, per 100 catties	0	5	0
Soy, per 100 catties	0	4	0
Sugar, white and brown, per 100 catties	0	2	5
Sugar Candy, all kinds, per 100 catties	0	3	5
Tobacco, prepared and unprepared, &c., of all kinds, per 100 catties	0	2	0

IMPORTS.

Gold and Silver Bullion, free.

Cottons.			
Cotton, fabrics of cotton, canvas from 75 to 100 chih long, and 1 chih 7 tsun to 2 chih 2 tsun wide per piece	0	5	0
Cotton, allowing 5 per cent. for tare, per 100 catties	0	4	0
Long white cloths, 75 to 100 chih long and 2 chih 2 tsun to 2 chih 6 tsun wide, formerly divided into superior and inferior fine cotton cloth per piece	0	1	5
Cambrics and Muslins, from 50 to 60 chih long, and 3 chih 9 tsun to 3 chih 3 tsun wide, per piece	0	1	5
Cottons, gray or unbleached Domestic, from 75 to 100 chih long, and 2 chih to 2 chih 9 tsun wide, formerly classed as coarse long cloths, per piece	0	1	0
Twilled Cottons, gray, same dimensions, per piece	0	1	0
Chintz and Prints of all kinds, from 60 to 75 chih long, and from 2 chih 9 tsun to 3 chih 3 tsun wide, formerly called ornamental or flower cloths, per piece	0	2	0
Cotton Yarn or Cotton Thread, per 100 catties	1	0	0
Linen, fine, not formerly in the tariff, from 50 to 75 chih long, and 1 chih 9 tsun to 2 chih 2 tsun wide, per 100 catties	0	5	0
Bunting, per chang	0	0	1½

All other imported articles of this class, as Ginghams, Pulicats, dyed Cottons, Velveteens, Silk and Cotton mixtures, and mixtures of Linen, Cotton, &c., 5 per cent. ad valorem.

Fabrics of Silk, Woollen, &c.			
Handkerchiefs, large, above 2 chih 6 tsun each	0	0	1½
Handkerchiefs, small, under 2 chih 6 tsun each	0	0	1
Gold and Silver Thread, superior or real, per catty	0	1	3
Gold and Silver Thread, inferior, or imitation, per catty	0	0	3
Broad Cloth, Spanish stripe, &c., from 3 chih 6 tsun to 4 chih 6 tsun wide, per chang	0	1	5
Narrow Cloths, as long ells, cassimeres, &c., formerly classed as narrow woolens, per chang	0	0	7
Camlets, Dutch, per chang	0	1	5
Camlets, per chang	0	0	7
Imitation Camlets or Bombazettes, per chang	0	0	3½
Woollen Yarn, per 100 catties	3	0	0
Blankets, each	0	1	0

All other fabrics of Wool, or of mixed Wool and Cotton, Wool and Silk, &c., 5 per cent. ad valorem.

Unenumerated.

All new goods, which have not been practicable to enumerate herein, a duty of 5 per cent. ad valorem.
Rice and other grain, duty free.
Opium—contraband.

Shipping Dues.—These have hitherto been charged on the measurement of the ship's length and breadth, at so much per chang; but it is now agreed to alter the system, and charge according to the registered statement of the number of tons of the ship's burden. On each ton (reckoned equal to the cubic contents of 122 tows), a shipping charge of 5 mace is to be levied, and all the old charges of measurement, entrance and port clearance fees, daily and monthly fees, &c., are abolished.

C. CUSHING. TSIYENG.

4.—TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES WITH NEW MEXICO.

By an act of Congress, passed 3d March, 1845, any imported merchandise may be exported from the United States to Chihuahua and Santa Fé, with drawback, either by way of the Arkansas river, through Van Buren, the Red river through Fulton, or the Missouri through Independence. The goods must be in original packages, with accurate invoices, descriptive of their marks and routes, &c.; the exporter to give bond in thrice the amount of duties, that the merchandise has been exported in good faith; the goods to be inspected by the United States Consuls in Mexico, and also by government agents at Van Buren, Fulton and Independence.

These regulations cannot but be regarded with interest, now that our trade with New Mexico is becoming every day of more and more importance.

The Secretary of the Treasury on the 10th April last, issued a circular, making arrangements for the further regulation of this trade, as follows:—

On first giving twenty-four hours' notice at the custom house, of intention to export, the exporter must make due entry, and for the purpose must produce the invoice required by the second article of the act. Said entry must recite the invoice in detail, and in addition, give a particular description of the merchandise, whence and by whom exported, the name of the vessel and the time of importation, with the original invoice value of the goods; and also state the destination and the route which the merchandise is to be transported. The entry must, in all cases, be verified by the oath or affirmation of the party making the same, together with the oath or affirmation of the first importer, with that of any person through whose hands the merchandise may have passed, declaring the same to be in the original package or packages, and that the duties have been paid or secured. Inspection of the packages should also be carefully made by a proper officer of the customs at the time of making the entry. The bond required by the 5th section of the act, to be given by the exporter. Each package, with the custom house marks and numbers on it, to be enclosed in a wooden box or covering, for its better security in the various passages.

5.—DUTCH CORN LAW.

The disease which has attacked the potatoes in a great part of the kingdom, has attracted the attention of the government. It has induced an inquiry into the causes and the character of the disease, and the means of preventing a rise in the prices of the articles of subsistence:—

The *Staats Courant* publishes a royal ordinance, dated the 14th of September, stating the measures taken by the government for the importation of articles of food:

"We, William II., &c., &c., having taken into consideration the unfavorable prospect of the crop of potatoes, which are one of the principal articles of food for the most numerous class; and that the general interest, as well as that of the commerce and manufactures of the country, requires that we should prevent by all possible means a rise in the price of provisions.

"Having likewise taken into consideration that in this respect the government should take no other measures than such as may tend to encourage as much as possible the importation of provisions for the working classes.

"On the report of our Minister of Finance, on the 9th September, 1845.

"Having consulted with our Minister of the Interior, with advice of our Council of State,

"Have decreed and decree—

"Art. 1. From the 15th of September the import duties on the following articles are:

"Potatoes, five cents per 10 mudd.

"Barley, one cent per 100lbs.

"Rice, one cent per 100lbs.

"Beans, peas, and lentils, 10 cents per last.

"Groats and pearl barley, three florins per 100lbs.

"Flour, five florins per 100lbs.

"This scale is fixed on all parcels of these articles, which shall be declared on importation on and after the 15th of September.

"Art. 2. We shall propose to the States-General, in the next session, the necessary measures to give legal validity to the regulations of Article 1 of the present decree, and also to fix till the 1st of June, 1846, or later, if it should be judged necessary, the import duty on rye and buckwheat, at the rate fixed for the present month of September, of 15 cents per mudd,* and on wheat and rye, for the same period, at 25 and 10 cents per mudd on the minimum of the duties fixed on these kinds of grain, by the law of the 29th December, 1834.

"Our Minister of Finance is charged with the execution of the present decree, which is to be inserted in the bulletin of the law, and copies sent to our Minister of the Interior, and to the Council of State."

This reduction in the duties is very considerable. By the tariff now suspended, the duty on potatoes is five cents per mudd; on barley and rice, 30 cents per 100 pounds; on beans, 7½ florins per last; on groats, &c., 10 florins per 100 pounds; on wheat, rye, and flour, 20 florins per 100 pounds; and on potato-flour, 10 florins per 100 pounds.

The *Staats Courant* has a very long article on the subject. It states that the produce in 1843 was 14,662,571 mudds, and in 1844, 13,552,030 mudds, and that from the returns already made, it seems probable that two-thirds, if not three-fourths of the crop is spoiled by the disease.

From the Farmer's Library for November, 1845.

6.—COMMERCIAL AND MARITIME STATISTICS OF GREAT BRITAIN, FRANCE, AND THE UNITED STATES.

Three great nations share among them the dominion of the seas; they alone carry on more maritime commerce than all the others put together; these are the English, the Americans of the United States, and the French.

TABLE 1.—*Population of the three great Maritime Powers.*

British Empire	125,000,000
Kingdom of France	36,000,000
Republic of the United States	20,000,000
	181,000,000

These three great powers extend over one-fifth of the population of the globe.

TABLE 2.—*Comparison of the imports and exports together of the three powers.*

British Empire	3,415,343,250	francs.
Kingdom of France	2,063,208,552	"
Republic of the United States	1,294,222,000	"
	6,772,773,802	

TABLE 3.—*Comparison of the great Commercial Marines.*

	Ships.	Tons.	Crews.
Great Britain	56,154	9,586,925	516,951
United States	23,948	4,715,333	234,476
France	36,237	3,737,197	320,258
Total	116,339	18,039,454	1,071,685

* Mudd is about four English bushels.

TABLE 4.—*Comparison of the National Tonnage with the Foreign Tonnage in the commerce peculiar to each of the great Maritime Powers.*

	National Flag.	Foreign Flag.
Great Britain	6 591,738	2,995,186
United States	3,274,242	1,441,091
France	1,416,329	2,320,868

TABLE 5.—*Comparison of Commercial Vessels by the three great Maritime Powers.*

	Number of Vessels.	Total Tonnage.	Mean Tonnage per Vessel.
Great Britain	20,912	2,420,759	115 8-10
United States	———	2,266,323	160 (approximate)
France	21,178	699,452	33 including 5,578 fishing boats.—Total tons, 36,252.

TABLE 6.—*Amount in Arrivals and Departures of National Ships employed in foreign commerce, in the three principal Maritime countries.*

	Ships.	Tonnage.	Crews.
Great Britain	35,516	6,591,738	353,964
United States	14,794	3,274,242	153,032
France	15,513	1,416,329	138,604
Total	65,823	11,282,309	645,620

TABLE 7.—*According to official returns, the Steamboat Tonnage of the United States amounted, 30th September, 1842, as follows:*

New Orleans and the western waters	126,278 tons.
Buffalo, Detroit, and north-west waters	17,064 "
New York, Baltimore, Mobile, Philadelphia, and the remainder of the Atlantic sea-board	75,652 "
Total	218,994 tons.

In July, 1844, the number of steamboats in Great Britain and Ireland was 855, exclusive of the Royal Navy, the amount of their tonnage being 109,288 tons:

Of which 373 (under 50 tons each) had an aggregate tonnage of	9,389 tons.
And 482 (above 50 tons each) had an aggregate tonnage of	99,899 "
Total number of steamboats, 855.—Total amount of tonnage	109,288 tons.

The entire number of steamers entered and cleared coastwise in 1843, reckoning, of course, the repeated voyages of each vessel, was—

Inward	14,633 vessels	3,001,431 tons.
Outward	15,292 "	2,796,522 "

Entered and cleared for foreign ports, exclusive of the colonies, in 1843—

Inward	2,852 vessels	443,095 tons.
Outward	2,875 "	450,733 "

The French steamers in 1841 numbered only 107, and their aggregate tonnage was 10,183; but this has very much increased since that time.

Thus, at these dates, the tonnage of the commercial steam vessels of the three countries stood as follows:

United States in 1843	218,994 tons.
Great Britain in 1844	109,288 "
France in 1841	10,183 "

THE

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

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Art. I.—THE ORIGIN, PROGRESS, AND INFLUENCES OF COMMERCE.

The history of trade carries us back to the primeval history of man himself. Neither science nor art nor any of the institutions of society have anything like the antiquity which of right pertains to this. The first want which was ever felt, the first appetite appeased, were but stimulants offered to new wants and appetites, whose gratification were denied to the unaided labors of the individual. We arrive at barter when we reach a point where the individual want calls into requisition efforts beyond what the individual can exert. When one man has not the thing which he desires, but has that which its proprietor would equally value, there is at once laid a foundation for that system of exchanges which is among the first developments in the progress of trade.

Locke, it is perhaps, who tells us that the hunter of the hills, whom the day's chase has crowned with no other than venison, would be loth to appropriate the whole of it to himself if he knew that his neighbor, whose fire flickered over the way, had a fine stock of grouse and pheasant preparing for the feast, and would be glad enough to smoke upon the embers with them a buck's quarter. If men were the same in those extreme early ages as they are now, in nature, we are sure that these progenitors of Nimrod partook of each other's good cheer without knowing a word of any of the "laws which regulate exchanges." A shoulder of venison was good for at least a pair of canvas-back ducks. Plain Cudjo, on one of our Southern plantations, proves his connection with the genus homo, by taking half his weekly allowance of rice and bartering it away for a mess of Indian meal.

Anderson, in his History of Commerce—four ponderous tomes—tells of a singular custom which prevailed with several nations of remote antiquity. Happening to have an overplus of any particular commodity or class of commodities, either of these nations would bear the excess to its border limits, and heap it up there. This surplus the neighbor nation drew upon as need might be, substituting for the removed deposit so much of its own redundant produce of a different character, as it considered a fair equivalent. Such a system betrays great simplicity of manners and integrity of heart. We would not bespeak for it much favor in an age like ours, when greedy avarice, wily policy, and dollar-and-cent philosophy, take strong hold upon men's propensities. Anderson does not mention, however, if any frauds resulted from this pristine liberality.

The origin of commerce is a subject which by no means admits of much philosophizing, and we are rather amused than instructed by the wire-drawn theories with which the reader is almost sure to be treated by every writer who sets himself up as instructor in this branch of history; as if traffic of some description was not just as natural and just as necessary in the progress of mankind, as the use of language or the powers of locomotion. To explain the origin of the former appears to us as profitless at least as that of the latter.

Nearly six thousand years have passed away since man began to earn his subsistence by the sweat of his brow, and for half of this period we have no other record than that to be found in the Hebrew Bible. Profane history carries us to its extent when we reach the age of Homer, one thousand years before that of Jesus Christ. In Homer's time, navigation had become a system, and the Scian muse sings through his pages of the noble fleet which followed the fortunes of Agamemnon against the strong-walled Troy—

> "What crowded armies, from what climes they bring
> Their names, their numbers and their chiefs I sing."
>
> ILIAD, II.

We must go farther back than this to find when trade became first a system.

We take up the Bible and turn to the lamentations and sorrows of Job. Whoever Job might have been, or whoever was the author of the book which chronicles his fortunes, it is certain that it is one of antiquity, equal, if not superior, to any other record in the world. Some have even given it an antediluvian origin. We have depicted in it at least the manners and customs of the patriarchal era. But the gold of Ophir and the Ethiopian topaz, as articles of commerce, would appear to have been familiar enough at that period to Arabian luxury.

Abraham counted out to Ephron for the burial place of Macpelah Gen. xxiii. 16), *silver, current with the merchant*, three thousand ive hundred years ago. This evidences, then, a currency and a ommercial community. The children whom God has raised up to braham—the Hebrews, of all ages and countries from that time to his—have proved themselves, beyond all compare, the most extraordinary nation of traders and traffickers that the annals of mankind have yet recorded. Blackstone fixes upon them the earliest use of that important instrument of commerce, the bill of exchange;* and English historians chronicle how these wealthy Hebrews, ere yet toleration became a virtue, were fleeced of their wares and moneys to satisfy the exorbitant and tyrannical demands of the sovereign purse. Old Isaac, of York, or some other "wealthy Tubal" of his tribe, it was, whose teeth were extracted, one day, by England's king, till he had brought to light from his hidden treasures gold enough to buy him ransom from his hard usage. We are not told whether Isaac came from under the operation toothless, or how many molars and incisors he conceived his treasury to be worth. A modern traveler

* This method is said to have been brought into general use by the Jews and Lombards, when banished for their usury and other vices, in order to draw their effects more easily out of France and England into those countries into which they had chosen to reside. 2 Blacks. Comm., 269.

in Syria pays the same tribute to these descendants of Jacob. "From morning until night," says he, "and from night until morning, in the streets, in the houses, in the public places and promenades, everywhere and for ever, nothing is to be heard in Syria but merchandise and money, money and merchandise."

Abraham went down into Egypt. The Egyptians were a people *sui generis*. They abhorred foreigners on a deep-rooted principle; and these men of yore, of mummies, pyramids, and obelisks, were little qualified for any of the enterprises of trade. They did, however, under one or two sovereigns, exhibit a different characteristic, but the thing was forced. Their traders navigated for a short season the waters of the Red Sea and Indian Ocean. Long after this, when ancient Egypt belonged to history, and when Alexander the Great had subdued his countrymen and half the world beside, the conqueror fixed upon the site and built the city of Alexandria, midway between the Mediterranean and Indian seas, and commanding the commerce of either. Scarcely a city reached to so great a point of eminence for many centuries as Alexandria, in all the great departments of trade; and it had been to this day as it was in its early existence, but for the skill of Portuguese navigators doubling the "Cape of Storms," and opening a new and better avenue from Europe to the East Indies. From that day to this Alexandria "is named no more."

But we are not done with the Jews. We are to speak of that empire which, in all pomp and splendor and Eastern gorgeousness, David and Solomon raised up and maintained on the shores of ancient Judea. There was a compact, a commercial compact between David and Hiram of Tyre, for the supply of timber and artisans necessary in embellishing the seat of Jewish empire. Solomon carried out the stipulations of his father, and extended the operations of the great copartnership he had formed. The untold wealth and magnificence of Israel's sapient king stand out boldly in the annals of the nation. Tyrians and Hebrews together toiled on the shores of the Red Sea, at Eziongeber, in fitting out a fleet of ships for their sovereigns. It is certain that this fleet had commercial ends, and that it made a successful adventure somewhere, but where, no one exactly understands. Speculations have multiplied upon the subject. Beawes, in his "Lex Mercatoria," devotes many a page to the inquiry, and labors hard to show that the allied fleet visited the islands of the East Indies, and found somewhere there, the Ophir and Tarshish from which the Bible seems to tell us that such abundant gold and treasure were obtained. The periodical winds in these seas explain the success of navigation in the absence of compass or chronometer. Other places, too, these shipping doubtless visited on the coast of Asia and Ethiopia; but as most of this is conjecture, the reader can conjecture as well as ourselves.

Phœnicia, in all antiquity, is without example or parallel. More than twenty-two hundred years before Christ, the Phœnicians had founded the great commercial mart of Sidon. In Sidon were to be found the most splendid developments of arts, manufactures, and commerce before the Christian era. The Sidonians were an extraordinary people, who marked themselves strongly upon antiquity. Their merchant fleets opened the gates of the Mediterranean, and

sailed away beyond the Pillars of Hercules, the *ne plus ultra* of the ancient world. They brought back to the vicinities of the Levant the ore which they obtained in Britain from the miners of Cornwall. With cargoes purchased in Arabia, Ethiopia, and India, these fathers of navigation made their way to Elath, on the Arabian Sea; an overland transportation from Elath to Rhinocolura, and a re-shipment from that port, found their commodities at last safely landed at the quays of Tyre.

Let the rapt visions of Ezekiel describe for us Tyre, in all the gorgeousness of Eastern metaphor:

"O thou that art situate at the entry of the sea, which art a merchant of the people for many isles; thy borders are in the midst of the sea, thy builders have perfected thy beauty! Fine linen with broidered work from Egypt was that which thou spreadest forth to be thy sail; blue and purple from the isles of Elishah was that which covered thee. The inhabitants of Zidon and Aroad were thy mariners: thy wise men that were within thee, were thy pilots. The ancients of Gebal, and the wise men thereof, were in thee, thy caulkers: all the ships of the sea, with their mariners, were in thee, to occupy thy merchandise. Tarshish was thy merchant by reason of the multitude of all kinds of riches; with silver, iron, tin, and lead, they traded in thy fairs. Javan, Tubal, and Meshech, were thy merchants; they traded *the persons of men* and vessels of brass in thy market. Syria was thy merchant by reason of the multitude of the wares of thy making; they occupied in thy fairs with emeralds, purple and broidered work, and fine linen, coral and agate. Judah and the land of Israel, they were thy merchants. Damascus was thy merchant. Arabia, and all the princes of Kedar, in thee, were thy merchants. The ships of Tarshish did sing of thee in thy markets, and thou wast replenished and made very glorious in the midst of the seas. What city is like Tyrus? By thy great wisdom and by thy traffic hast thou increased thy riches, and thy heart is lifted up because of thy riches!"

The fate of this great city we are all familiar with. Sacked and destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar, it was only rebuilt to suffer the same dismal fate at the hands of Alexander. Tyre, the ancient mariner and merchant, has left behind but few traces of his opulence, and the nation of whom Tibullus wrote—"Prima ratem ventis credere docta Tyros," and of whom God decreed, "thou shalt be a terror, and shall never be any more," fulfilled at last its destiny.

Carthage was a colony of the Phœnicians planted in Africa. The infant settlement, by the extension of its trade and the energy and enterprise of its inhabitants, soon grew up to a stature so great and powerful, that the salvation of the Roman empire admitted of but one voice at its capital—*Carthago delenda esse;* Carthage must be destroyed. This commercial people, through two of the bloodiest and most protracted wars of which history has any mention, met, braved, and defied the "Eagle" and the mailed legions of Rome, and only yielded at last with a struggle worthy of Homer's deities.

Before the Greek states began to send out colonies to the numerous islands of the Ægean, the Greeks knew little of foreign trade. So soon, however, as these little bands migrated off from the mother country, the influences of their position, free institutions and unre-

stricted customs began to be felt among themselves, and to re-act upon the parent states. Nearly all of Grecian commerce prior to the time of Alexander, was confined to this trade with the colonies.

The Romans never were a trading people. Their sympathies were for agriculture, war, and conquest. Trade was held in contempt, and nothing but the sword and the plow were counted honorable. To every person of rank, birth, or fortune, says Kent, the Romans prohibited commerce; and no senator was allowed to own a vessel larger than a boat sufficient to carry his own corn and fruits. They were content to receive through Egypt those supplies of Eastern commodities which ministered to their luxury and taste. When the empire was removed to Byzantium, in the fourth century, the commerce of Rome, such as it was, fell almost entirely into decay.

All Scandinavia and the northern hive poured down in the third, fourth, and fifth centuries, upon Rome, their myriads of barbarians. Huns, Goths, Vandals, Attilas, and Alarics—these terrific men swept away all traces of civilization for a gloomy period, and with fire and sword desolated the whole of southern Europe. Commerce received a death-blow in the struggles of this era.

The Byzantian or Greek empire, meanwhile, continued its intercourse with Alexandria, and received thence its oriental supplies, until the Arabians, seizing upon Egypt, put a stop at last to this lucrative branch of commerce. We next hear of the Byzantians sailing up the Indus to its highest navigable points, transporting their commerce thence overland to Oxus, and down to the Caspian Sea. Having reached the sea, they made sail into the Volga; transported their commodities across the country to the Tanais, thence to the Euxine, to be shipped there ultimately for Byzantium itself.

It is unnecessary to dwell upon that period of darkness and gloom which settled down upon the seats of ancient letters, civilization, and commerce, when the lights of Rome and Greece had been put out, and bloodshed, anarchy, and fierce discord attained their despotic empire. It seemed as if God had cursed and withered the fair work of his own hand.

There rose at last in Italy, upon these ruins, a community which has been celebrated in every subsequent age. "Pisa was the first republic that rose into power after the dismemberment of the Roman empire," says Mr. Lester in his late work, "and to her, modern times are more indebted for their civilization than to any other people who have flourished since the ancient Romans."

If Italy witnessed the flickering and expiring rays of that light which, in its full blaze, had illumined the ancient world, it was on the soil of Italy that it was re-lit again in the progress of centuries, and it was from thence that darkened Europe caught the first faint beams of morning which broke upon the world. The night of arts, sciences, and commerce was dissipated by the lights which shone from the Adriatic and the free Italian republics.

We are to speak of Venice and Genoa, who were to modern ages what Tyre and Carthage were to those which had been numbered before the Christian era. Inspired with the recollections of the past, and full of the holy associations of the moment, Byron, standing on the "Bridge of Sighs," and viewing the ruins of Italian glory—.

"Where Venice sat in state throned on her hundred isles,"

with full heart and impassioned eloquence, lamented over the mistress of the Adriatic, her "dead doges," her perished commerce, her "crumbling palaces" and exhausted treasures.

"In youth she was all glory—a new Tyre;
Her very by-word sprung from victory—
The 'Planter of the Lion,' which through fire
And blood she bore o'er subject earth and sea;
Though making many slaves, herself still free,
And Europe's bulwark 'gainst the Ottomite."

Venice, Genoa and Pisa excelled in genius, spirit, and enterprise, all the nations of Europe. Driven from barbarous invasion to their retreats, these republics, territorially contracted, and little favored in soil, reached to a pitch of opulence and empire which excites our highest admiration. Their rich argosies went out upon the Mediterranean, and their mariners braved the storms of every ocean. Liberty spoke in their halls, and law resumed again its sway. One of the best commercial codes which the world has ever known, we are told, originated in the councils of Pisa.

In the tenth century, Venice had established commercial intercourse with the Saracens of Egypt and Syria, for their staples of sugar and rice, for dates, senna, cassia, flax, linen, balm, perfumes, galls, wrought silks, soap, etc. She traded too for the rich spices and precious stones of India, and with merchandise so rare and rich entered the markets of western Europe, and commanded the whole of its valuable trade.

The Italian republics, when the crusades were firing the brains of knights, kings and beggars, appeared to be inspired too with some portion of the religious frenzy. But the Italians were too good merchants to enter upon enterprises as wild as these without first stipulating for privileges of commerce and trade from the monarchs whom they might serve. They were not such zealots as to give up their ships without prospect of advantage, when their employment in carrying helmets, breastplates and tall soldiery, was as good as carrying bales of stuffs and merchandise.

We cannot refrain here from introducing a passage from Lester's letter on the "Consular System," which is eloquently descriptive of the progress of one of these republics, and which emanates from a man who was inspired by a residence on its very soil.

"Genoa contributed more powerfully than any other Italian State to the early crusades. The Ligurian* Republic had been able to resist the rush of barbarians from the North, and had, even in the ninth century, nearly destroyed the Saracen empire in the islands of the Mediterranean and on the African coast. More deeply fired with the spirit of maritime adventure than almost any other State in the world, she led the way in the commerce of the East, and closed her magnificent career by the discovery of the New World. Even before the time of Peter the Hermit, she had opened a flourishing commerce with Asia, and she was present at the conquest of Antioch and of Jerusalem. The chivalric leaders of those bold enterprises well

* This name, derived from the Romans, was generally used by the Genoese till the downfall of their republic.

knew how much they owed to her valor and commercial activity: and the red cross in the white field, the ensign of the Ligurian Republic, was planted on the towers of Antioch and the battlements of Jerusalem. Godfrey and Baldwin ordered the following inscription to be placed over the Holy Sepulchre: '*Stronghold of the Genoese.*' She formed treaties with the Moorish and African princes, and gained, by diplomacy or conquest, a strong foothold in the Black Sea, where she founded a powerful colony that augmented her commercial wealth incredibly."

When Pisa, in those fearful contests which shook the shores of Italy, had yielded to the arms of Genoa, this State eclipsed then even Venice herself.

Whatever may be thought of the crusades in this period of the world's enlightenment, all history attests that they introduced into Europe Eastern tastes and customs, and led the way to an extension of commerce, and ultimately to a new era of light, truth and liberty.

In the northern parts of Europe, on the Baltic, and in the island of Gothland, grew up between the eleventh and twelfth centuries, the city of Wisburg. The marine ordinances of this now decayed town are celebrated in the annals of commercial nations. Cleirac gives a glowing account of the wealth and prosperity of the city. He speaks of it then as the most celebrated and flourishing emporium in Europe, where merchants from all parts came to traffic, and had their shops and warehouses, and enjoyed the same privileges as the native inhabitants themselves. Chancelor Kent, in commenting upon this passage from Cleirac, and contrasting with it the Wisburg of the Baltic as we find it now, finds the occasion fitting to indulge the "melancholy admonition of the poet," that "trade's proud empire hastes to swift decay."

Between the years 1164 and 1254, was formed in Europe what is known in history (and famed as known), as the Hanseatic league. The object of this league was protection to the trade of the free cities which formed it, from the robber clans and "roving barbarians" of the North, and the pirates which swarmed in every sea. Lubeck was at the head of the league of Hanse towns, and her first allies in the federacy were Brunswick, Bremen, Hamburg, Dantzic and Cologne. The league extended its influence to embrace most of the trading cities of Northern Europe, and attained to so great power as to form treaties with sovereigns themselves. Its duration was terminated at last by the jealousy of these sovereigns, who withdrew their cities from the alliance.

In coming down to modern times, we tread upon ground so familiar, that any lengthy exhibition of the extension of commerce will be unnecessary. We all know familiarly enough, that at the present moment cotton, woolens, silks and French wines have larger influence in making Americans, Englishmen and Frenchmen shake hands over their quarrels, and avow that they have ever loved each other right well, than all the natural affection they might ever be supposed to entertain for each other put together, and all their universal philanthropy in the bargain. We have said before, and repeat it, that the mercantile interests rule the world, and right grateful are we that Providence has imposed so firm a ligament to join together his frac-

tious, headstrong and ever-erring children. We sometimes meet with fine treatises on benevolence, disinterested philanthropy, and other things of the same stamp; and once upon a time were fond ourselves of talking about the "dignity of human nature," etc.; but after all, human nature is not without its frailties, and the "stern Saxon," without being anything of a coward either, will never attempt to dictate peace at the cannon's mouth with his neighbor on this side of the water, while he has broadcloths to sell and a million and a half bags of cotton to buy. And we do not slander the neighbor on this side of the water much by a similar remark.

But Venice, Genoa, Pisa, Wisburg and the Hanse towns, such as they were, have passed away, and the commerce of the world is in other hands. The hardy Portuguese mariners, in discovering the new passage to the East round the Cape of Good Hope, struck a blow at the Italian republics from which they never recovered. Spain and Portugal, on the discovery of America, divided the world between themselves, and struggled to establish a magnificent commercial monopoly. The famous treaty of Tordesillas, 1494, entered into between these nations, opened the eyes of England to the schemes which were to exclude her from a participation in the best fruits of either India.

"The progress of commerce," says Robertson, in his admirable chapter introductory to the History of Charles V.—"the progress of commerce had considerable influence in polishing the manners of the European nations, and in establishing among them order, equal laws and humanity. It tends to wear off those prejudices which maintain distinction and animosity between nations. It softens and polishes the manners of men. It unites them by one of the strongest of all ties, the desire of supplying their mutual wants. It disposes them to peace, by establishing in every State an order of citizens bound by their interests to be the guardians of public tranquillity. In proportion as commerce made its way into the different countries of Europe, they successively turned their attention to those objects and adopted those manners which occupy and distinguish polished nations."

In the fourteenth century, we are told by Hallam—History Middle Ages, p. 475—that Flanders had become a market for all the world; and that merchants from seventeen kingdoms had their settled domicils at Bruges, beside strangers from almost unknown countries.

Edward III. was the father of English commerce. Before his reign no advances of any character had been made in that country to extend its foreign intercourse, but Edward set himself in earnest to build up and establish the kingdom. He invited over from Flanders artisans and workmen, who may almost be said to have originated the manufacturing system of England. It is not a little curious to consider the motives which were held out to this enterprising body of men, as they are furnished for us in a venerable record. They were told that in England "they should feed on fat beef and mutton till nothing but their fullness should stint their stomachs; that their beds should be good and their bed-fellows better, seeing the richest yeomen in England would not disdain to marry their daughters unto them." The products of the labors of these craftsmen, feeding upon

"fat beef and mutton" to respectable corpulency, became soon known, and famous in the markets of all Europe.

There was little mercantile spirit in England before the time of Queen Elizabeth. True it is, that King John's barons forced the monarch into an acknowledgment of the rights of foreign merchants visiting the empire; but it was long after King John and his barons, ere the English people began to appreciate the advantages of foreign trade. Henry the Eighth was cruel and tyrannical, and taxed illegally the interest he ought to have fostered. Elizabeth had greatness of mind sufficient for the purposes of empire, and had she been as well acquainted with the true principles which regulate trade as she was desirous of stimulating it in every way, she had been higher praised in history. Her numerous monopolies granted, whether of sweet wines, licenses, or whatever else, were blunders which could only be accounted for by favoritism, were it not notorious that at that period these were considered in themselves to be evidences of sound policy.

In a lecture delivered by T. W. Tucker, of New York, on the merchants of the time of Queen Elizabeth, published several years ago in Hunt's Magazine, there is an enumeration of the various monopolies which were granted by that sovereign. We are happy to lay our hand on the address at this moment, as it will save us from farther reference on the point.

The Dutch traders of London, resident at a part of it called the Stilyard, were famous at that epoch and obtained privileges and immunities from the monarch sufficient to set up the most grinding monopolies.

On the fall of the Dutch traders, the company of English merchant adventurers was formed. This company too rose to great wealth and importance, exporting annually English woolen cloths to the amount of £1,000,000 sterling, and maintaining abroad the highest possible credit. The Russia company, about the same time, and the Turkey company existed. The latter traded with India and reached the heart of the Mogul empire. Hard upon these followed the Morocco company, the company of Eastland merchants, the Hamburg company, the Guinea and the East India companies. Sir Francis Drake, in some of his little short of piratical cruisings, first suggested to England the importance of the Indian trade. This trade enriched the sovereign then, and has enriched the nation ever since.

We pass over that stormy season which occupied the larger portions of the reigns of James I. and Charles I. In the disasters of anarchy and civil war which befel the nation at this time, it would have been impossible for commercial enterprise to exhibit itself in any of its higher developments.

Hume indeed has informed us that in the reign of James I. the Dutch traded to England with six hundred ships, but England in turn could furnish on her own account but sixty ships in the same traffic. Nine-tenths of the English commerce at this period consisted of woolen manufactured goods.

The administration of Cromwell was crowned with many results favorable to trade. The liberal principles of the Protector could not endure those severe restrictions and monopolies in which the prosperity of the nation had been bound up, and he abolished them all.

When Charles II. was restored to the throne of his father, a new impulse appeared to be given to everything in England, so much so, that Russell affirms in his Modern Europe, "that at no former or subsequent period did England ever make such rapid progress in commerce and riches as during that inglorious one which followed the Restoration, and terminated in the expulsion of the Stuarts."

The present enormous commercial stature of Great Britain is attributed by McCulloch, not to the heaps upon heaps of parliamentary acts for the encouragement of navigation and trade, but to the extraordinary improvements and consequent extension of her manufactures since 1770. Happily seated upon an island girt around by the sea, she finds that the extraordinary influence which she is exerting upon the world, is dependent more upon the immensity of her naval armanents and commercial marine, than upon the extent of her territories or the numerical proportion of her inhabitants. Like Athens of old, she finds strength and safety in her "wooden walls."

The cotton manufacturing system of England has been the offspring, great as it is, of the last seventy-five years. At the commencement of this period it was nothing; at its termination half the entire exports of British produce consists of cotton stuffs and yarn. England looks upon her Hargraves, Arkwrights, Cromptons and Watts, as America does upon her Fultons and Whitneys; but England looks upon her own liberty and enterprise as above them all. In fact, says one of her writers, when these are impaired, the colossal fabric of her prosperity will crumble into dust; and the commerce of Liverpool, London and Glasgow, like that of Tyre, Carthage and Palmyra, will at no distant period, be famous only in history.

We come at last to consider the subject before us, in connection with the past and present history of America. There is reason enough to dwell upon the ample enterprise, and stubborn, unyielding spirit of the people who fled across the ocean from the tyrannies of the old world, and established among the deep forests of the new the germs of a nation which has already become great. What could subdue the spirit of a people like this? Rugged as their own wild homes, the infant colonists braved the seas and the storms. They dug the graves of tyrants with the same implements that brought them bread out of the soil. Struggling with the desperate savage at one moment, they braved at the next the fierce storms and monsters of the deep. There is no adolescence in such a people. They spring into manhood's vigor from the infant's imbecility.

There went up into the high court of Parliament, as early as the year 1670, a grave charge against the colonies which England "protected" across the ocean. Said the ministers, they violate our ordinances of trade with impunity, and our navigation laws, which with infinite pains we have devised, they trample under foot with disdain. Their traders sally out upon the deep, and we find them seeking entrance into all the ports of Europe. "They even encourage," these are the words of the remonstrance—"they even encourage foreigners to trade with them."

One hundred years after this, Edmund Burke stood up in the halls of the same Parliament of England, an advocate of freedom and humanity, and a deadly, implacable foeman to their assailants.

This noble Roman found in the wrongs of his countrymen across the ocean, a theme worthy of his highest eloquence, and in their daring enterprise what was too much even for his unmatched powers to portray. Who does not remember that inimitable speech in which the orator found all his country in his heart? We cannot refrain the indulgence of an extract, as the book which reports it is extended before us, and we seem to see all the glory of our country shadowed forth in that which was but a graphic sketch of the hardy enterprise of the sons of New England.

"While we follow them," said the orator, "among the tumbling mountains of ice, and behold them penetrating into the deepest frozen recesses of Hudson's bay and Davis' straits; while we are looking for them beneath the Arctic circle, we hear that they have pierced into the opposite region of polar cold; that they are at the antipodes and engaged under the frozen serpent of the South. Falkland islands, which seemed too remote and romantic an object for national ambition to grasp, is but a stage and resting-place in the progress of their vigorous industry. Nor is the equinoctial heat more discouraging to them than the accumulated winter of both the poles. We know that while some of them draw the line and strike the harpoon on the coasts of Africa, others run the longitude and pursue their gigantic game along the coast of Brazil. No sea but what is vexed by their fisheries—no climate that is not witness to their toils. Neither the perseverance of Holland, nor the activity of France, nor the dexterous and firm sagacity of English enterprise, ever carried this most perilous mode of hardy industry to the extent to which it has been pushed by this recent people; a people who are still, as it were, in the gristle, and not yet hardened into the bone of manhood."*

As early as 1647, as we are informed by Holmes in his American Annals, a flourishing trade was opened by the New England colonies with Barbadoes, and the other islands of the West Indies.

In 1685, a collector of revenues at the port of Charleston, in South Carolina, was appointed by the home government. This was but a few years subsequent to the foundation of the city. Charleston progressed rapidly incommercial importance; and before the Revolution, as an importing and exporting city, maintained an equality with Boston, New York and Philadelphia.

In 1690, began the hardy enterprise of the whale fishermen of Nantucket. This little island, situated far out from the main land, bleak, sterile, and scarcely inhabitable, with not a tree of its own native growth, and scarcely an inviting prospect to cheer its inhabitants or minister to their ease and gratification, has yet been enabled to reach to an enviable distinction in commercial wealth. We know not where to affix the limits of the hardihood and daring of these enterprising men. They have planted a garden upon a rock, and they have become rich by hard toil where nature has been most stinting in her favors. The importance of the whale fisheries it is not difficult to understand, and we shall exhibit in other pages of the present number of our journal, statistics, to satisfy all of the magnitude to which they have at last grown up.

The trade of Massachusetts alone, in the year 1717, brought into

* Griffith's Notes on American Colonies.

constant activity and employment four hundred and ninety-two ships, and nearly four thousand sailors.

In 1730, we are informed that there arrived in England from America 154 tons of oil, and 9,200 tons of whalebone; and that in the first fifteen days of July in the same year, 10,000 hogsheads of sugar reached the same port from the British American sugar colonies. In the ensuing year, Massachusetts employed six hundred ships and sloops, and five thousand fishermen.

The commerce of New England, as early as 1742, required for its support upward of one thousand sail of vessels, while at the South, Charleston alone loaded in 1744 two hundred and thirty.

The trade of Britain with her American colonies employed in 1769, 1,078 ships, and 28,910 seamen. The value of her imports from them for that year amounted to £3,370,900, and of their imports from her to £3,924,606.

The following table, taken from Holmes' Annals, exhibits the progress of this trade for the years named:

		Imports from Colonies.	Exports to Colonies.
Annual average,	1700 to 1710	£265,000	£267,000
" "	1710 to 1720	392,000	365,000
" "	1720 to 1730	578,000	471,000
" "	1730 to 1740	670,000	660,000
" "	1740 to 1750	708 000	812,000
" "	1750 to 1760	802,000	1,577,000
" "	1760 to 1770	1,044 000	1,763,000
" "	1770 to 1780	743,000	1,331,000

Mr. Burke stated in Parliament in the year 1775, that the trade with America alone, at that time, was within less than £500,000 of being equal to what the great commercial nation of England carried on at the beginning of that century with all the world.

The first year which witnessed peace between England and her colonies, now raised to the dignity of free and independent States, witnessed the opening on their part of a new and lucrative branch of trade with China, which at the present moment, in exports and imports together, is worth annually little short of eight or nine millions of dollars.

Toward the close of the eighteenth century, 1795, we are informed that a vessel sailed from Charleston to the East Indies, the very first enterprise of the kind which was undertaken by that city.

The confederating "articles" which carried the American States through one of the most glorious revolutions on record, were found in every respect inadequate to keep together these States on terms of equal rights and prosperity at the restoration of peace. The conflicting institutions of so many sovereignties, without any head of acknowledged power and influence, tended to paralyze commercial movements and entirely to arrest those advances which had been already made. One of the most powerful inducements which operated upon the minds of these States to enter upon a new and better compact, was found in the absolute requisitions of commerce; and the immortal constitution under which we now live finds its origin here.

Scarcely more than half a century has elapsed since our federal constitution was adopted, and in that period our advance has already rivaled the dreams of eastern fiction. Every sea and navigable water

under the face of heaven, witnesses the white wings of our shipping and hears the bold voices of our mariners. Our flag is upon the deep, and it floats alike at either pole and at the equator, on the uttermost limits of the globe. Great as has been our progress in the past, there is a prophetic voice which tells us that we have but begun to enter upon that bright and glorious "empire of the seas" which is yet to be ours. We have laid the foundations of cities which occupy rank with the Tyres and Carthages of antiquity, and must soon rival the Londons of the present day. To what is New York indebted for that extraordinary position which she has taken in the republic, but to the centralization of nearly all of its foreign trade in her midst; and New Orleans, at the other extremity of latitude, is she not marching onward in the same pathway at a ratio which is equally amazing?

It is now, perhaps, full time to bring to a close the interesting subject upon which we have been engaged, and which has been swelling out under our hands to proportions little contemplated. So much is there of poetry and romance in the extension through all ages of the branch of enterprise we have been considering, that we can easily be excused a portion of enthusiasm and a fond lingering o'er the theme. At the fountain head we recognized commerce in its simplest stage among nature's recent, rude, and unsophisticated children. We marked its gradual progress. Following the astute Israelite in his bargains for the gold which enriched the temple of Solomon and the streets of Jerusalem, we saw the hardy Phœnician launching out his bark upon the deep, guided only on his perilous voyages by the stars of heaven. We heard the busy voices of Greeks upon the Ægean; we saw the stern Roman curling his lip on his trading neighbor with disdain; and while yet Venice in all its splendor sat mistress of the now "spouseless" and deserted Adriatic, we met with the merchants that congregated at the Rialto from every quarter of the habitable globe. We turned our eyes to the Baltic, and contemplated the wonderful "league" which it witnessed, and closing the volume of antiquity and of the middle ages, there remained alone the great maritime and commercial powers of Britain and America. With these the picture closed. What then remains of the sketch we designed, but hurriedly to trace some of those effects, most marked, which the empire of commerce over the world naturally and necessarily exerts. These will occupy us but a moment.

When political economy first began to attract the attention of men, and give birth to the erroneous theories with which it so long exerted a control, commerce, as a source of national wealth, was derided. It was asked where was the creative power which it had ever exerted, or could ever exert? Had it ever developed two blades of grass where but one existed before? Could it ever substantially add a jot or tittle to the *intrinsic* value of a single commodity? With agriculture, said these men, it is directly the reverse. Agriculture is legitimate wealth. It is the creator, the producer of value—it affords something out of nothing. Commerce is mere transportation of agricultural wealth; the laborer hired to carry produce from its maker to its consumer. Can such transportation add anything to the *intrinsic* value of the article transported? If it can, we have only to continue its motion, adding transportation to transportation, without reference to place,

and we make accretion after accretion to its value, until, in process of time, it becomes precious beyond all price or compare. Must we be led into such absurdity?

In progress of time it came to be considered, that however plausible the reasonings of these philosophers, there was much of sophistry involved in them, and that the wealthy agriculturists, proud, lordly, and reliant upon their ample acres, were disposed naturally enough to keep up a prejudice so favorable to their interests. The various laws passed in Great Britain, in particular at the period of which we treat, for the benefit of the landholders, and the great jealousy which was exercised toward trading corporations, as, for instance, toward London, all strikingly evince the truth of this.

When commerce began to come more into favor, a distinction was soon set up. It was yielded that foreign commerce might really be of benefit to a nation, and add to its available wealth; but in regard to domestic commerce—merchandising—the home trade—these were regarded as little more beneficial to a community, on the score of new wealth, than ballad singing, or mountebank exhibitions. The last thing which men could be induced to credit was, that the trade intermediate between the importer and consumer, was in any sense productive of wealth. This proposition has, however, become settled in the almost demonstrative reasoning of modern political science; and we may hope that doubts and speculations so inimical to the interests of prominent and useful classes in the community will never be raised again. Freed from these unworthy prejudices, commerce, whether foreign or domestic, comes at once to be admitted as a legitimate source of national aggrandisement.

We have sometimes heard it gravely alleged that the commercial spirit is unfavorable to the existence of true patriotic sentiment and exertion. We have been told that it severs the ties which bind the individual to his native soil, and disposes him to yield much, too much, to the policy of contemporary nations; that the commercial spirit merges the citizen in the cosmopolite, and awakens a keener sensitiveness to national interest than to national honor. Even Burke endorsed the doctrine with the high authority of his name, when he characterized the merchant's desk as his altar, his ledger as his bible, and his money as his god. But is there anything of truth or justice in the charge? Has it appeared in the development of the world's history, that there has been any natural hostility between the merchant and the patriot? Has it been found that commercial communities have been disposed to submit to aggression with easy compliance, and put on the yoke of conquest without a struggle? Was it so with Tyre when the Greek conqueror was thundering at her gates? Did puissant Rome, on her seven hills, ever contend with an enemy bolder, fiercer, and more desperate than the descendants of the Phœnician traders at Carthage? Were the Italian States easy victories to the aggressions of foreign foes, or were they at all less glorious in arms than in enterprise? We shall not pause to answer such questions.

We have no idea that there are in commerce any tendencies like these we have been combating. It disposes nations to be just and liberal in their intercourse with others, but it changes not their own

individuality—their own pride of character—in any point that it ought not to be changed. Merchants there have been in all ages and countries who have added to the glory and honor of their States, by the highest and noblest exertions of patriotism. Men enjoying the confidence of their sovereigns, and exhausting their coffers in defense of the realm, have been found in this class, and we shall, upon another occasion, enumerate the most distinguished examples which history furnishes us. The merchants of London were, even in the earliest times, the bankers of the crown, and Elizabeth in particular knew what it was, on many an occasion, in her own exigencies, and in the exigencies of the kingdom, to have her purse replenished by their liberal coffers. In our own country we may be permitted to say that there has on no occasion been ever displayed a truer love of country, and a loftier tone of patriotism than has been displayed by our merchant citizens. They have fallen behind none in the assertion of the rights and the liberties of the republic.

Commerce is a natural guardian of the arts and sciences. Under its influence the highest results have been stimulated. To what, for instance, can the astonishing progress and perfection to which astronomy has been carried be attributed, more than to the ever-arising wants of navigation? The solution of the problem of the latitudes and longitudes has been promised, at different periods, the highest premiums of government. It has set astronomers at toil which only terminated in brilliant discovery. The various problems of navigation even now demand the highest labors of these men in every country, and the mere tables of a nautical almanac—the calculation of eclipses, occulations, and paralaxes—calls into action a degree of scientific skill which can scarcely be appreciated by the uninitiated. The mariner's compass, quadrant, or chronometer, are miracles of art as well as of science. From every nation in the world commerce has brought together her trophies, and laid them at the feet of science. Without leaving his closet, the student of nature may arrive at profound results in the investigation of animals, plants, shells, and minerals, scattered over the whole globe—above the earth and under the earth, and down to the depths of the sea. Every art and science acknowledges its large indebtedness to the hand of commerce for the influence it is enabled to wield over nature in extending the empire and dominion of man.

Commerce is the parent of civilization. We are acquainted with but one agency which excels it in perpetuating peace and good will among men, and elevating national character, and that agency is Christianity. But even the heralds of the cross, with all their noble and inspiring theme, have not penetrated farther into the depths of savage wildernesses, or among the fiercest islands of the ocean, have not crossed mountains and deserts more desolate and terrific, have not plunged more fearlessly in the midst of horrid idolatry, cannibalism, and semi-demonism, than have these men of bales and merchandises in their search after trade. They have gone hand in hand with the missionary, where they have not acted as his pioneer. It was thus in the early history of America. Marquette and Allouez, fathers in the Roman church, were even distanced by the adventurous La Salle in the first visits which were made by civilized men to

the howling wilderness westward of the lakes. It is thus with the hunters and trappers of Oregon and California, who as far upward as the Russian limit and south to Mexico, prosecute trade with the savage, as yet ignorant of his soul and of his Maker. It is most strikingly thus in the case of the Sandwich islands. Commerce, acting as the adjunct or handmaiden of Christianity among the savages there, has transformed them into men and into citizens. We see a trophy won to civilization—a people added to the Christian nations of the earth.

Let us take the extremest limit of the ocean, the stormiest islet of the sea, struggling against a thousand billows, and what do we find? The sailor and the trader have been there, and the return of the "white wings" is hailed by anxious multitudes, who bring out their treasures to be bartered for the veriest trifles of civilization. From the intercourse which arises, new wants are stimulated in their bosoms. They begin to think with the new objects which occasion thought. Their views and ideas are naturally expanded to a wider compass, and they are insensibly moulded in the type of those who have excited their highest admiration and wonder. Mysterious, beneficent and wise are the ways of Providence, when even the interests of men are called into requisition to work out the great problem of their existence.

Commerce, in fine, is what it has been beautifully entitled, "the golden girdle of the globe." It binds together all the great families of men. It teaches that they are creatures of like wants, errors and necessities. It determines them to be component parts of a great and magnificent system which God has devised, and which requires the concurring movements of every part to be preserved in its perfection and duration. It forbids them to treat like the ancient Roman, the foreigner cast upon their shores, as a barbarian deserving of death, or to confiscate his shipwrecked effects, but urges rather the doctrines of humanity and justice. Even the laws which regulate it are based upon the immutable principles of right, and bind upon the consciences of men from their very nature. As Mansfield, the most celebrated commercial lawyer of his age, said of them, quoting the splendid language of Cicero: "*Nec erit alia lex Romæ, alia Athenis; alia nunc, alia posthac; sed et omnes gentes, et omni tempore una lex et sempiterna, et immortalis continebat:*"—they are not one law at Rome and another at Athens, they do not fluctuate from extreme to extreme, but among all men and in all times the laws of commerce are one and immutable.

Art. II.—MEXICO, ITS SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITION.

In selecting this topic, we have been guided by the interest which the public seems at present to manifest in everything relating to the country, and perhaps also by the hope that the attractions of the subject would, at least, partially conceal our own inability to do it justice.

In descanting on the political condition of Mexico, we beg leave,

however, to remark, that we have not the remotest intention of entering the arena of politics; but simply to seek in the past and present history of that country for the solution of the problem of her actual condition and future prospects.

To trace the progress of mankind in their various and repeated struggles to establish a social organization adapted to their wants, and calculated to promote their happiness, has in every age been deemed both useful and instructive, and some of the loftiest efforts of the human intellect have been devoted to its illustration.

This is a sufficient motive for our present inquiry, which has, besides, a practical importance, since the fate of Mexico, owing to its proximity and the nature of our relations, cannot fail, in the course of time, to exercise some influence on our own.

To the eye of the philosopher and statesman, nay, to every one who possesses sufficient elevation of mind to sympathize with his fellow-men, without reference to the clime they may inhabit, the actual condition of Mexico presents a subject of deep and melancholy interest; for it would be vain to attempt to disguise, that if the United States on the one hand, exhibit in bold and beautiful relief the blessings of liberty, Mexico, on the other, shows that freedom may be perverted and degenerate into anarchy, which, in its effects, is not less deplorable than the most oppressive despotism.

What, then, is the reason that seven millions of our fellow-men, possessed of sufficient energy to shake off a foreign yoke, after three centuries of oppression, have been unable for the space of nearly a quarter of a century after the attainment of freedom, to establish a form of government capable of securing to them the blessings of a liberty which they acquired at the expense of so much blood, and after so many sufferings and sacrifices? Such is the politico-historical problem we shall endeavor to solve.

Situated between the 16° and 42° of north latitude, laved on the east by the Gulf of Mexico, from which it rises abruptly, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean, toward which it inclines more gently, Mexico seems by its geographical position admirably adapted to be the abode of civilized man. Although a portion of it extends within the tropic, yet, if we except the comparatively narrow borders skirting the two oceans, it is even here, owing to its elevation, in a great degree exempt from the excessive and enervating heat which elsewhere oppresses this region. The climate of the country, although divided by the inhabitants into the *Tierra Caliente* (hot region), the *Tierra Templada* (temperate region), and the *Tierra Fria* (cold region), is, upon the whole, delightful, and its soil furnishes in abundance everything requisite not only to sustain life, but to supply it with comforts and luxuries.

In a geological point of view, Mexico also exhibits some peculiarities which deserve attention, because they have exercised, and will continue to exercise a great influence on the pursuits of the inhabitants. Human industry may do much to subjugate nature and compel it to minister to its wants and comforts; but it is impossible for man to exempt himself entirely from the control of the physical structure of the country wherein he dwells.

The western hemisphere, differing in this respect considerably in

its configuration and structure from the eastern hemisphere, is supported, throughout its whole extent, by one single and lofty chain, which, although in its progress through South America it is called the Andes, in Mexico the Sierra Madre, and in the United States and Canada the Rocky mountains, is yet, in point of fact, the same gigantic mountain range.

This majestic chain, which in South America exhibits innumerable craggy peaks, rearing their lofty summits far into the region of perpetual snow, and separated by ravines of immense depth, which render communication almost impracticable, assumes in Mexico a very different and more cheerful aspect. Here the summit of the mountain exhibits on the contrary, for thousands of miles, an almost uninterrupted level, studded, it is true, here and there with rocky eminences, and presenting in a few instances mountains of immense height, like the Orizaba and the Popocatepetl, but offering no serious impediment to traveling in carriages throughout the whole distance.

It is on this immense plateau, the mean height of which exceeds six thousand feet above the level of the ocean, that nearly three-fourths of the whole population of Mexico is concentrated. Here are found mingled the fruits and flowers of the temperate and torrid zones, and here, likewise, are to be found those inexhaustible deposits of gold and silver which have so long excited the envy and the admiration of the rest of the world, and which have been the source of so much wo to the simple inhabitants of the ancient empire of the Aztecs.

Having thus given an imperfect sketch of the physical aspect of the country, we shall proceed to inquire into its history.

Mexico has been known to the Europeans for little upward of three centuries, its conquest having been effected by the Spaniards in 1521.

This conquest, which is the most brilliant and extraordinary event in the history of Mexico, has however been so admirably described by the distinguished historian Prescott, that prudence forbids us to follow in his footsteps, and by what would be at best but a feeble and pale imitation, excite regret that the illustrious author, with whose works we are all familiar, was not himself present to recount the story which his written narration has invested with so exquisite a charm.

There are, however, certain portions not only of the conquest of Mexico, but of its early history, to which it will be necessary to direct our attention, because, in order to appreciate the present, we must recur to the past, of which it is but the fruit.

In raising the veil with which time has already surrounded the early traditions of Anahuac (the ancient name of Mexico), we will not detail to our readers the wanderings of the Toltecs, who in the seventh century of our era are supposed to have laid the foundation of its civilization, and of whose existence and skill in architecture the magnificent ruins of Mitla and of Palenque afford convincing proofs; nor shall we inquire into the origin of the Chichimecs, Acolhuans, or the Aztecs, who succeeded them, and of which the Acolhuans, better known as the Tezcucans, and the Aztecs as the Mexicans, were in possession of the country when it became a prey to the rapacity of a handful of European adventurers.

But inasmuch as our object is to study the civilization of Mexico, it is proper that we should recollect that the country, at the period of the conquest, was far removed from that state of barbarism which everywhere else on the North American continent characterized the condition of the aborigines.

The knowledge we possess of the ancient Aztecs, and which is derived from their own historians, as well as from those of their conquerors, proves, beyond the possibility of a doubt, that they had made considerable progress not only in agriculture and the mechanical arts, but that they cultivated successfully some of the fine arts, and were acquainted with the science of government.

The magnificence of their palaces, resplendent with gold and silver, and the beauty of the workmanship of many of their manufactures, are spoken of with raptures by Cortez, in his letters to Charles V., and the truth of this testimony is confirmed by existing monuments of their skill, which have survived the wreck of their empire, and which are preserved both in Europe and America.

Their government appears to have been an absolute monarchy, verging on the borders of despotism, and supported by a hierarchy of nobles and priests.

The population of the country is said to have amounted to several millions, and war seems to have been a favorite occupation of the inhabitants.

That an empire so organized and supported, should, in the short period of two years, have been completely subjugated by a few hardy adventurers, rarely ever exceeding six hundred in number, seems, at first glance, rather a fable, invented by some writer of romance, than the sober dictates of history; yet it is the simple truth, and far from being a solitary example of the verity of the adage, "that truth is often stranger than fiction."

Indeed, the conquest of Mexico, when stripped of the enchantment with which the remoteness of the event, and the splendid narrations of its historians have clothed it, though still an extraordinary occurrence, is not more so than many events of modern times. Thus the conquest of India by Clives, and the rise and fall of Napoleon, are in their kind, certainly fully as remarkable as the exploits of Cortez, and yet no one attempts to qualify them as a romance, because the events are recent, and are supported by evidence which no man in his senses is disposed to doubt; and yet, who can assure us that these facts, when rendered dim by the shade of centuries, will not be deemed fictions by posterity?

Having, for the reasons assigned, declined the examination of the conquest, we proceed to examine the condition of Mexico after the conquest, because, from the seeds then sowed, proceed in a great degree, the bitter fruits which the descendants of the race by which its conquest was achieved do now reap, and which will long obstruct their efforts to establish a stable and rational government.

Cortez and his followers were devoutly persuaded that the Bull of Pope Alexander VI., which bestowed on Ferdinand the Catholic the right of conquering and occupying America, was the best of possible titles, and conferred on his successor, Charles the V., the absolute sovereignty of the country. He accordingly took possession for that

emperor, to whom the inhabitants were made to swear allegiance, and he governed it in his name, although, in the absence of all law, it seems certain that he and his companions were guided chiefly by their own good will and pleasure.

The Indians who had survived the carnage of war, were divided among the conquerors, who never for a moment imagined that Indians could possess any rights, or that they had either the courage or the intelligence requisite to make such rights available. These divisions, called *Repartimientos*, had already been resorted to in Hispaniola and elsewhere, and had in their favor the sanction of usage. In the mean time, Spain, apprehensive that he who had evinced such consummate courage and address in conquering the country, might be tempted to make himself master of it, and true to the dark and tortuous policy which in the sixteenth century was generally adopted by the sovereigns of Europe, removed Cortez from the government of Mexico, after rewarding him and his followers with a liberality which cost her nothing, since she only bestowed on them a small portion of the territory which they had so gallantly acquired without her aid.

The new viceroy and his successors gradually extended the conquest so as to embrace the greater part of New Spain, and emigrants flocking thither from the mother country, soon converted it into a flourishing and productive colony.

The fate of the Indians, which then constituted and still constitutes the largest portion of the population of Mexico, was, especially immediately after the conquest, in the highest degree deplorable. Treated like beasts of burden, and doomed by the insatiable avarice of their masters to work incessantly in the mines and on their plantations, this poor, melancholy, and suffering race dwindled away with such frightful rapidity, that government, which had for a long time been deaf to the humane and eloquent voice of the Bishop of Chiapas, the virtuous Las Casas, their constant and zealous advocate, was at last compelled to take some effectual measures for their protection. The *Repartimientos* were accordingly reduced to *Encomiendas*, paying a fixed tribute, and this tribute was eventually paid to the owners out of the royal treasury, by which means the Indians were in some degree placed beyond the control of their former masters.

Subsequently the *Recopilacion de las Leyes de Indias*, a code enacted for the government of all the Spanish colonies, by its provisions, many of which are unquestionably humane, extended that protection to the Indians of which they stood so much in need. It is certainly true that these laws, which were only accessible to the Spaniards, whose interests they opposed, were rarely faithfully executed; yet they no doubt produced some amelioration in the condition of the natives.

This code, which has been styled "*a bulwark erected for the protection of the Indians*," we must take leave to say, is, with all its boasted humanity, when critically examined, a stupendous system of servitude, established on the broadest basis, and calculated for ever to retain the Indians in the lowest and most abject state of degradation. It presupposes, in the monarchs of Spain, absolute power over the lives and property of the conquered races, and as a consequence

regards every act, which is not downright oppression, as a favor. It prescribes the burdens they are to carry, the distances they may be made to travel, the pay they shall receive for their labor, and a multitude of other particulars, which presuppose the abrogation of all will of their own, and a wretchedness of condition far below that of any state of servitude known, either among the ancients or the moderns.

To maintain so systematic an oppression it was indispensable wholly to exclude the Indians from all intercourse with the "rational world," to use an expression of Don Lorenzo de Zavala, and to seclude them from the moral influences which operate on the rest of mankind.

Spain, after acquiring possession of Mexico, immediately interdicted all intercourse between the colonies and foreigners; but not content with this, she abandoned the commerce of the country to a few favored individuals at home, under the direction of the *Casa de Contractacion*, at first located at Seville, and afterward at Cadiz. She also inhibited, under the pain of severe penalties, the cultivation of the olive and other productions of Spain, adapted to the soil of Mexico, and thus not only isolated the colonists from the rest of the world, but rendered them dependent on the mother country for many of the comforts and even necessaries of life.

The civil, military and judicial offices were all filled by Spaniards, who acted as checks, and often as spies on each other, while every possible precaution was taken to prevent them from forming a party in the colony. This, in some instances, was carried so far as even to forbid their holding friendly intercourse with the inhabitants, as was the case with the *Oidores* of the *Audiencias* (judges of the supreme court of appeal).

The clergy, who had been introduced into the country for the purpose of converting the Indians, soon acquired exorbitant influence and immense wealth.

The viceroys, who, as the heads of the civic and military government, possessed great power, were almost absolute, and their will was rarely questioned, and never successfully resisted.

Education, usually entrusted to ignorant monks and priests, served principally to inculcate the doctrine of passive obedience, and to teach scholastic theology, and rarely ever to develop the intellectual and moral faculties of the Mexican youth.

Under a system of policy so unpropitious to the development of the resources of New Spain, and the intellect and energy of its inhabitants, little could be expected; and it is a convincing proof of the extraordinary capabilities of the country, that so much was really effected: for Mexico was at the commencement of her revolution (1810), as compared with the rest of the Spanish colonies, in a most flourishing condition.

This arose, no doubt, in part from the great extent of the country, and the absolute necessity of leaving a large portion of the population, especially in the provinces remote from the capital, and in the mining districts, chiefly to their own guidance.

But as it would be unfair, after exhibiting the shade of the picture,

not to show its bright side also, I shall briefly point out some other causes which operated to bring about this result.

The Spanish government, though absolute, and requiring blind obedience to its decrees, was still a parental government, and imposed comparatively few trammels on private industry, provided it confined itself to those channels which it had not thought proper to monopolize.

The productions of the mines were not only considered by government, but by private individuals as the real and only important source of wealth; but mining industry is, of all human occupations, perhaps the most precarious; and hence few persons could have been tempted to embark in it, had not the advantages and the protection afforded by government been somewhat equivalent to the risks to which the adventurers were exposed: hence the enactment of the celebrated *Ordinanza de la Mineria;* which, as a systematic and equitable code for the regulation of mining operations, is admirable.

If we, moreover, consider the exuberant fertility of the soil, and that many of the viceroys were men of enlarged and liberal views, and labored zealously to promote the material prosperity of the country, in which they were often efficiently aided by the clergy, we are in possession of the leading causes of the physical well-being which Mexico appeared to enjoy when she began the struggle for her independence.

Before examining that period, we shall, however, briefly sum up the principles of the colonial system of Spain, which appear to have been the following:

1st. *Passive obedience*, which allowed of no inquiry into the justice and legality of the orders of the constituted authorities, but required their prompt execution, under severe penalties.

2d. *A state of profound ignorance*, which did not permit the inhabitants to learn more than the government judged convenient.

3d. *The religious education*, which inculcated the grossest superstitions.

4th. *The monopoly of the commerce, of the landed property, and all lucrative employments in the country.*

5th. *A complete seclusion from all intercourse with foreigners.*

6th. *A standing army*, the members of which were always ready to execute the orders of their superiors, and acted more frequently as police officers, than as defenders of the country. And finally,

The terror inspired by the Inquisition.

From the facts which have come to our knowledge since Mexico has been accessible to observation, it appears certain, that at the period of which we speak, the European Spaniards, who were in possession of all civil, military and ecclesiastical employments, committed with impunity numerous acts of injustice and oppression. Justice became subservient to caprice and interest, and jealousies and dissensions were continually fomented between the Europeans and the Creoles. The latter had, indeed, little reason to expect redress from the Europeans, and their rights as men were frequently invaded, while the path of social distinction presented impediments which he could seldom overcome. But four out of the one hundred and sixty viceroys which successively governed Mexico, were Creoles, and they

had been educated from their infancy in Spain, and owed their elevation chiefly to their connections in the Peninsula.

Venality was carried so far, that it has been affirmed on respectable authority, that during the administration of Godoy, better known in history as the Prince of Peace, every office in Spanish America, from that of the viceroy to that of the lowest officer of the custom house, was publicly sold.

Such were the causes which justified the Revolution, the leading events of which we shall now briefly examine.

When, in the year 1808, the insatiate ambition of Napoleon prompted him to invade Spain, for the purpose of decorating the brows of his brother Joseph with the crown of that ancient and proud monarchy, and when Charles IV. and his son Ferdinand had, as it were, surrendered a throne which they had not the courage or capacity to defend, all the Spanish colonies felt the effects of this important event.

Mexico was then governed by Don Jose Yturrigaray, a man whose conduct had not been remarkably oppressive, and whose affability and popular manners masked his sordid gains, and the corruption by which he acquired immense riches. His court, in imitation of that of Madrid, was the scene of continual balls, *tertulias* and festivities, at which the hypocritical inquisitor, the grave Oidor, and the right reverend bishop, vied with the supple courtier for the smiles of the viceroy, and the more substantial favors which they expected as the reward of their obsequiousness.

At this period the mint of Mexico coined annually from twenty-two to twenty-seven millions of dollars, and the revenues amounted to thirteen millions, of which one half was sent to Spain. The whole commerce of the country was in the hands of European Spaniards, with the exception of a few privileges granted to some British merchants by Godoy. The mines were so productive that some of the principal ones, like that of *Valenciana* and of *Rayas*, not only enriched their owners, but supported two thousand families. The grazing estates, usually principalities, often supported from twenty to thirty thousand head of cattle, while the sugar and coffee plantations in the *Tierra Caliente*, all owned by Spaniards or monks, produced princely revenues.

In the midst of this wealth, which appertained to the privileged classes, and which owed its origin to feudal privileges, concessions, pensions, monopolies, and abuses of various kinds, and a very insignificant portion of which was due to the industry of the owners, the condition of the mass of the people was wretched.

Three-fifths of the population were Indians, who, without any species of industry or landed property, which they had scarcely a hope to acquire, lived on the plantations, farms or mines of the great proprietors. Many of these wretched beings were huddled together in small villages (pueblos), and supported themselves by hunting, fishing and manual labor, by which they gained a scanty subsistence. Some few employed their time in making cotton shawls, called *rebozos*, straw hats and baskets, and all were miserable. The different castes, mulattoes, mestizoes, &c., constituted another fifth of the population, whose condition was scarcely superior to that of the In-

dians. The remaining fifth were whites, of which more than nine-tenths were creoles, or natives of Mexico, among whom many were very poor, and compelled, by resorting to the occupation of muleteers, carriers, grogshop keepers, &c., to support themselves and their families.

The terror inspired by the authorities and their troops, and still more by the Inquisition, kept all these portions of the population in a state of subjection equal to that of complete slavery.

Primary education was almost wholly neglected, and even the instruction in the colleges was exceedingly imperfect, and served frequently to propagate false principles of science and philosophy.

Thus, astronomy was taught with the avowed object of inspiring contempt for the system of Copernicus and Galileo, and the Mexican professor of that science maintained stoutly that the sun revolved around the earth, in spite of reason and Sir Isaac Newton. Not only the writings, but the very names of Bacon, Newton, Locke, &c., were unknown, while those of Voltaire, Rousseau, D'Alembert, &c., were uttered with abhorrence.

The judicial power, entrusted to Instance Judges, Sub-delegates, Corregidores, and the Audiencia (the highest court in the colony), was the only one which preserved some semblance of independence. Even here, however, such was the general corruption, the poor was rarely a successful suitor against the rich or powerful, and the protection of the Viceroy, who was likewise president of the Audiencia, rarely failed to prove an efficient passport to the favor of the judges. Suits were often prolonged forty, fifty, and even one hundred years, and there is one now pending in Mexico in relation to some volcanic mountains in the neighborhood, a suit which has been in litigation for upward of two centuries.

Such was the condition of that country, according to the testimony of Don Lorenzo de Zavala, at the period when the news reached Mexico of the abdication of Charles IV. in favor of Ferdinand VII., at Aranjuez, and the detention of the latter by Napoleon at Bayonne.

But this event, so far from exciting the Mexicans to shake off the oppressive yoke of the mother country, only kindled in their breasts a generous enthusiasm in favor of the young monarch, which led to a subscription of seven millions of dollars, which were forwarded to Spain to sustain his cause.

Spain was in the mean time in a state of confusion, bordering on anarchy, which was not remedied by the formation of provisional governments, under the name of juntas, in the different provinces, all of which claimed to be legitimate substitutes of the royal authority.

Yturrigaray had not as yet resolved how to act in this emergency, when the Junta of Seville sent commissioners to Mexico, and claimed to be recognized as the supreme authority.

The conduct of the viceroy on this occasion was marked by such hesitation and reserve, that it inspired the Spaniards with the apprehension that he intended to throw himself into the arms of the creoles, and declare the country independent. To prevent this, a conspiracy was organized, and five hundred merchants armed themselves, attacked the vice-regal palace in the night-time, killed the guards,

sent the viceroy as prisoner to Vera Cruz, and thence to Spain. A provisional government, composed exclusively of Spaniards, was immediately formed, and continued to govern the country until the arrival of the new viceroy.

The surprise and consternation which this occurrence produced throughout Mexico, where the vice-regal authority was regarded as little less than divine, were extreme. The audacity of a few merchants, in thus unceremoniously seizing the representative of the royal authority, was commented on with severity; but such was the terror inspired by the Spaniards, that no resistance was offered to the new government. The example, however, was not lost, and perhaps suggested, in the sequel, the Revolution, which, after many vicissitudes, enabled the Mexicans to attain independence.

The authorities appointed by the *Parianistas*, a name given to the conspirators by the *Parian*, a structure on the great square of Mexico for the sale of merchandise, continued to govern the country till 1809, when Archbishop Lizana was appointed viceroy. This prelate, though possessed of the virtues which adorn the clerical station, was wholly unfit to govern the country at this critical juncture, and he was superseded by Don Francisco Xavier Vanegas.

Vanegas arrived in the country only a few days before the revolution of Hidalgo, which took place on the 16th of September, 1810, which day continues to be celebrated by the Mexicans as the anniversary of their independence.

To follow, step by step, the progress of this revolution, would lead us too far; we shall therefore content ourselves with a brief summary of its leading events.

Don Miguel Hidalgo y Castilla, curate of the village of Dolores, in the province of Guanajuato, was the first to conceive the vast and daring design of shaking off the Spanish yoke, and of restoring his countrymen to those privileges of which no people can ever be rightfully divested—the right of governing themselves. Collecting around his standard an innumerable mass of individuals, chiefly Indians, armed with pikes, clubs, spades, pickaxes and other agricultural and mining implements, he hastened to the city of Guanajuato, then containing a population of eighty thousand inhabitants, which received him with open arms, and hailed him as the liberator of the country. Here he was joined by Colonel Allende and Captain Abazola, but was compelled to attack the Spanish garrison, which made a most determined resistance, which so exasperated his followers, that all the Spaniards fell victims to their inconsiderate fury, and were slaughtered to the war-cry of *Mueran los Gachupines*—death to the Spaniards. This deplorable event stained the fame of Hidalgo, and produced a re-action against the revolution in many parts of the country.

Neither the genius nor the pursuits of Hidalgo seem to have qualified him for conducting the enterprise which he had undertaken, and neither Hidalgo nor those subordinate to him in command, seemed to comprehend distinctly the object for which they fought, or to have formed any rational or connected plan for its execution. Their war-cry was "*Vive la Señora de Guadalupe*"—Hail to the Lady of Guadalupe (the patron saint of the Mexicans), and on her miraculous

protection they seemed to rely much more than on their own strength and ability.

So ardent, however, were the Mexicans in supporting his cause, that after taking possession of several towns on the road to Mexico, Hidalgo found himself at Toluca, within twenty-two miles of the capital, at the head of one hundred thousand men. Here Tercuato Tergillo attempted to arrest his progress at the head of an army of ten thousand regulars; but such was the enthusiasm of the patriots, many of whom rushed on the cannons of the Spaniards with their hats before them, thinking thereby to arrest the balls, that Tercuato, after committing great slaughter, was compelled to retreat on Mexico.

It is supposed, that if Hidalgo had followed up his success, and immediately attacked the capital, which was incapable of opposing resistance, he could at once have crushed the Spanish power, and terminated the revolution. Hidalgo, however, was a priest, his past life had been employed in dispensing those charities which render the sacerdotal functions so respectable. Suddenly transformed into a soldier, his heart had not yet acquired that sternness and indifference to human sufferings which the trade of war usually begets. Thousands of his simple followers had already sacrificed their lives, and he feared that an attack on Mexico would lead to still greater bloodshed. He therefore retired to Aculco, where he was afterward attacked and defeated with dreadful slaughter by the Spanish General Calleja. After this disaster, he retreated to the present State of Jalisco, where another battle was fought at the Puente de Calderon, wherein Hidalgo lost eighteen thousand of his followers. After this defeat he attempted to penetrate into the interior provinces, but was captured and executed at Chihuahua, on the 27th July, 1811.

The revolutionary war now assumed a most cruel and sanguinary aspect, which the Mexican historians attribute to the unexampled atrocities of the Spanish General, Don Felix Calleja, afterward created Count of Calderon, and Viceroy of Mexico. He is said never to have granted any quarter to the patriots, and in Guanajuato alone, to have in cold blood cut the throats of fourteen thousand of the inhabitants, including men, women and children, and even to have boasted of the exploit, pretending that to waste powder and shot on such a rabble was beneath the dignity of a soldier.

Hidalgo was dead, but the spirit he had roused survived him, and his place was supplied by various chieftains in different parts of the republic. Of these, Ignacio Rayon, the curates Morelos and Matamoros, Vincente Guerrero, Xavier Mina, Nicolas Bravo, Manuel Mier y Teran, and Guadalupe Victoria are the most distinguished, and through their exertions, after ten years of struggle and innumerable sufferings and sacrifices, the Independence of Mexico was at last achieved in 1821.

Of these heroes, all however did not live to see the glorious termination of a cause they had so gallantly espoused, and their fates and fortunes were widely different. Matamoros and Morelos, who united to the most daring courage, considerable military skill and sagacity, were both made prisoners in the early part of the revolution and shot. The young and gallant Mina shared the same fate somewhat later.

Rayon, Bravo, and Mier y Teran were also captured, but as this occurred during the reign of Apodaca, the successor of Calleja, their lives were spared.

Guadalupe Victoria was compelled to seek refuge for years in the forests and caves of his native State of Vera Cruz, without any other companions than the wild animals which dwell habitually in those fastnesses of nature.

Vincente Guerrero alone continued active operations throughout the whole war, and neither threats, persuasion, nor the most tempting offers of wealth and distinction, could induce him to sheathe the sword he had drawn in defense of his country, and by the aid of which, after his junction with Iturbide, he at last effected its liberation.

Don Augustin Iturbide, whose name we have just mentioned, is one of the most striking illustrations of the vicissitudes of fortune which modern history affords. Born in the State of Michoacan of distinguished and wealthy parents, he entered, while yet a youth, the armies of the oppressors of his native land, where he distinguished himself by his courage, activity and cruelty above his companions, and attained the rank of general. He then joined the patriots, and was chiefly instrumental in securing the independence of his country, which, forgetting his past cruelty, in gratitude for his recent services, raised him to the highest command. Here, rendered giddy by his elevation, he caused himself to be proclaimed Emperor, and actually enjoyed the title and the power attached to it for a short period, when his empire was overthrown, and he was banished. After languishing in exile for a short time he returned to his native country, where, deceived by false representations, he landed, was captured, and expiated his imprudence with his life, at Padilla, in the State of Tamaulipas, in July, 1824.

With the appointment of Iturbide to the chief command, in 1821, terminated the Mexican Revolution, for although the castle of San Juan de Ulua, opposite Vera Cruz, continued in possession of the Spaniards for some time after this period, they were virtually expelled from the Mexican territory, in which they never afterwards acquired a firm footing.

In the sketch given of the life of Iturbide, we have already, in anticipation, given an episode of the history of Mexico after the expulsion of the Spaniards, which occurred exactly three hundred years after the first conquest of Cortez.

After the death of Iturbide, the Mexicans formed themselves into a Federal Republic, of which the constitution, copied almost literally from that of the United States, was adopted on the 4th of October, 1824, and under which Guadalupe Victoria was elected first President, and installed as such, on the first of January, 1825. The federal constitution was not, however, adopted without much opposition, and the elements of discord which had been silently acquiring force, broke out in open revolts, called *pronunciamentos*, or *gritos*, in the language of the country, shortly after the installation of the President.

The first, was that of Lobato and Stavoli, which had for its object to deprive the natives of Spain of all public employments.

The second, was that of Padre Arena, against the Federation and in favor of Centralism; and

The third, headed by Bravo, avowed the same object, but was soon suppressed by Guerrero.

Upon the whole, the administration of Victoria passed off with some degree of popularity, and he was permitted to finish his term of four years, the only example of the kind in the history of modern Mexico.

During the administration of Victoria, two parties, called the Escoseses and Yorkinos, divided the country. In their origin, they were members of separate lodges of the fraternity of Freemasons, established according to different rites, but in the sequel they became hostile political parties.

Gomez Pedraza, an Escoses, was elected successor of Victoria, by only two votes over his opponent Guerrero, a Yorkino.

The President elect was not, however, permitted to take his seat, a new pronunciamento, known as that of the *Acordada*, having broken out, which declared his election null, and that of Guerrero valid. The latter was accordingly installed as President the first of January, 1829. But he was hardly warm in his seat ere the Vice-President, Bustamente, organized a new revolution at Jalapa, which enabled him to expel Guerrero from the country, and to assume the reins of government. Guerrero, unable to live remote from his native land, whose cause he had so long and so valiantly defended, returned from his exile, was captured and shot, in 1831. From this period the country remained tranquil until 1832, when, after the expulsion of the Spanish expedition under Barradas, Santa Anna pronounced against Bustamente, and compelled him to retire; whereupon Pedraza was recalled and permitted to serve out the remaining four months of the term for which he had been elected.

In 1833, Santa Anna was elected President, and there is no doubt, that while occupying that station, he was chiefly instrumental in overturning the Federal, and establishing the Central government, organized according to the plan of Toluca, in 1835.

In 1836, Barragan was placed at the head of government, and Santa Anna took command of the Texan expedition, which terminated so disastrously for his fame. In the mean time Barragan died, and Bustamente was elected President in 1837. Various *gritos* and *pronunciamentos* then followed each other in quick succession, none of which proved successful, except that of Paredes in 1841, which led to the adoption of the plan of Tacubaya, and the elevation of Santa Anna to the provisional Presidency. This wily chieftain was not, however, long permitted to enjoy his power. A new *pronunciamento* soon broke out, which deprived him of his power and made him prisoner; and he is now, it is said, meditating in exile, in the island of Cuba, new schemes to repossess himself of his former power. Herrera was lately chief or President of the Mexican Republic, but news having recently arrived that Paredes was at the head of a new *pronunciamento*, it is difficult to tell who is the present incumbent of that office.

From the above sketch of the political history of Mexico, since the revolution, which is collected from the best and most authentic

sources, it is obvious, that she changes her form of government and her governors with astonishing facility. These facts presuppose a state of anarchy and confusion, which is incompatible with the protection of the lives and property of the citizens, the chief ends of all governments, and which cannot be secured amid the din of arms and the incessant and bloody conflicts of hostile factions.

The causes of the prevailing confusion in the affairs of Mexico, appear to be the following:

First.—The total want of education of a large portion of the inhabitants of the Mexican Republic.

The whole population of Mexico may be stated in round numbers at seven millions; of which four millions are Indians, two millions mestizoes, mulattoes, zamboes, &c., usually denominated *castes*, and the remaining million are whites.

Of the Indians, two per cent. are able to read, say, eighty thousand; and of the remaining three millions twenty per cent., equal to six hundred thousand—making a total of less than one-tenth of the whole population, capable to read.

But the whites do, in point of fact, govern the country, and of these, deducting three-fourths for women and children, there remain but two hundred and fifty thousand who can take a share in the administration of affairs. Of these, not more than thirty per cent. have received any species of education, and the control of the government is consequently in the hands of seventy-five thousand, or at most, one hundred thousand individuals.

Secondly.—The existence of the military and the clergy, both of which are privileged classes, and enjoy the protection of *Fueros*, which exempt them from the jurisdiction of the ordinary tribunals of the country.

The military is at the head of all the revolutions in the country, and though the number of the army cannot be accurately stated, we know that the officers exceed ten thousand, and that complaints have often been made by the heads of government, that the number of officers was greater than that of the soldiers.

Thirdly.—The entire absence of a body of professional men, merchants, mechanics, farmers and planters, whose influence could serve as a counterpoise to that of the army and clergy.

Fourthly.—The low state of morals already existing under the colonial government, where venality and corruption were not only practised but tolerated, and which the perpetual civil wars which have desolated the country for the last thirty-five years have not had a tendency to improve.

All these causes must be removed ere Mexico can be regenerated; and though difficult, there is no reason to despair of this, for the Mexicans are possessed of great natural capacities, which only require proper cultivation and a favorable field for their development, to enable then to attain a high grade of intelligence.

From their actual condition it appears to us, however, that they are not yet ripe for the establishment of republican institutions.

Liberty, personal, political and social, is one of the noblest elements of human happiness, the hope of attaining which has in every age glowed in the breast of the patriot and the hero, and induced

him to make exertions and sacrifices, which no other principle, save that of religion, has ever succeeded in calling forth: nay, the love of rational liberty approaches nearer to that lofty feeling with which we approach the Deity, than any other human sentiment or affection. It is predicated on a profound knowledge of our own interest, and an enlightened and ardent sympathy for the welfare of our fellow-men, which necessarily presuppose moral worth and a cultivated intellect.

A republican form of government, which is this liberty in action, can therefore never be established and maintained, except among a virtuous and intelligent people; for it requires the sacrifice of private interest to the public good, the suppression and control of individual passions, when their expression might be detrimental to the community, and above all, that high moral and mental culture which enables each citizen to sustain his part in the administration of the affairs of the nation of which he is a member.

Applying this standard to the social condition of the Mexicans, no one who judges them fairly can arrive at a conclusion different from that which we have expressed in relation to their present fitness and capacity for self-government.

Providence, in mercy to mankind, has hid the future from our ken, and the conjectures which we form in relation to the events it will bring forth, rarely, if ever, resemble the reality. We shall, therefore, abstain from all prognostication in relation to the future fate of Mexico.

Bounded on the north and east by the United States, which are advancing with giant strides in the path of knowledge and civilization, it is hardly possible that our example will not be productive of practical instruction, and lead to imitation in the Mexican States.

Our sister republic has taken her rank among the sovereign nations of the world under circumstances, which as yet have not enabled her to make known her intrinsic worth or to develop her physical and intellectual resources. She requires to be treated with indulgent forbearance, especially by the United States, who are much her seniors, and who are so far before her in all the elements of knowledge and prosperity.

This course of conduct seems to us not only required by the generosity which always distinguishes a great and enlightened nation; but to be likewise dictated by true policy; since it will preserve in the great republican family which peoples the western hemisphere, an important member, whose condition, though at present obscure, will in all probability, at some future period, be as splendid as our own, and capable to repay us ten-fold the friendship we extended to her in her infancy.

Art. III.—MORSE'S ELECTRO-MAGNETIC TELEGRAPH.

"Vanquished nature yields,
Her secrets are extorted."

YOUNG.

WITHIN the last hundred years, the extension of inductive philosophy has been crowned with more brilliant results than accrued from all the previous labors of mankind. In all the wisdom of ancient times, or of modern either, down to the era of Lord Bacon, with the exception of the sparks of light which glittered through the pages of revelation, there was nothing which evidenced the mighty powers of intellect, such as it is exhibited to us now. Bacon may be said to have created a new world, and a new man to inhabit it. He struck off the shackles from mind. He taught men to think, to reason, and to act. He pointed out a pathway to science, rugged and thorny at first, but terminating in Elysian fields of glory. He humbled proud intellect to the dust, because he knew that it would not be sullied there. He brought Plato from the clouds, where he had been bewildering himself, and forbade his followers to soar

"To the empyreal sphere,
To the first good, first perfect, and first fair."

But in tearing down the old systems which had kept the human race in ignorance and in bondage, it was the glorious province of Bacon to develop the true system of human effort—the system not of vain speculations and theories—but the system, as one of his followers has termed it, of "fruits."

And what are these fruits? The whole empire of the arts and sciences already exhibits them. What has not been done since then to extend the empire of man over nature? What was done before? Of what advantage had philosophy proved in practical life? Philosophy had scorned the humble ways of men. It would have deemed itself degraded to intermingle with their affairs. The sages, "like the stars, were wont to give little light, because they were so high." Seneca was indignant, we are told by Macaulay, because the philosopher Posidonius "so far forgot himself as to enumerate among the humbler blessings which mankind owed to philosophy, the discovery of the arch, and the introduction of the use of metals." It was throwing pearls to swine, in the estimation of these men, for the philosopher to descend from his stilts and teach the multitude. "Let the wretches take care of themselves and their own vile concerns." Truth never descended from heaven for such as they. Truth can only be reached by the very opposite qualities to those which they possess. She can only be wooed by divine contemplation, by mortification of flesh, by abstinence from all those joys and cares which constitute the mere mortal. These were the arguments and doctrines which resulted in the sapless, lifeless tree of ancient philosophy.

Lord Bacon, on the contrary, asked "fruit" for the mass. Locke asked for "fruit." Newton, La Place, Linnæus, Lavoiseur, and the hundred others who have been great in science within the period of a century, have all been employed, with their whole mind and heart, in producing "fruit." It was fruit which set Sir Humphrey Davy

at work on his safety lamp. It was fruit which directed the energies of Watt in his engine. The whole employment of experimental or inductive philosophy has been to arrive at truths of practical value in directing the concerns of human life. Condorcet, in the enthusiastic madness of the French revolution, supposed that the fruits of science would even extend human life indefinitely, by the removal of all the causes which tended to produce death!

To him who has watched the progress of discovery and invention in the different countries of Europe and America, scarcely anything now will appear impossible. To be wise in matters of this sort, is to learn humility. It is almost, in the present day, as some of the old theologians argued—"this is impossible, therefore it is true!" We cease to limit the powers of mind. We cease to draw the demarcation between the possible and the impossible. We say with the chemist, for example, not how many elements there are in nature, but modestly affirm how many there are *at least*. We limit not what man may achieve, nor determine what is beyond his reach. For us it is sufficient to contemplate what he has already done.

Had we searched throughout the whole domain of the arts and sciences, and made each particular achievement the object of severe investigation, there would have occurred, we think, no object more justly and naturally calculated to excite the emotions which have been passing through our mind, than the *Electro-Magnetic Telegraph*. This extraordinary victory over the powers of nature has not a parallel in the archives of discovery. It stands alone in its brilliancy, and reflects more of honor upon the age and country which gave it origin, than has been derived from any other of the results of physical science. The steam engine, which has been so long the wonder of mankind, and which is hailed as the miracle of human skill and genius, is after all but the application to useful purposes of those powers which have been applied to humbler ones in every age. The steam engine appears to be a wonderful result of combined art and science; we consider it such, and honor its projectors; but there is nothing in it which refuses to accord with our preconceived notions of the possible, and of the powers and resources with which the intellect of man is endowed. We have endeavored in vain to regard the electric battery in its adaptation to the conveyance of intelligence in a similar point of view. There is something so gigantic and stupendous in its results, something so far beyond all the conceptions which had ever entered into the brain of philosophy before, something so infinitely higher even than the achievement which was thought worthy to appear in the epitaph of Franklin, "*eripuit cœlo fulmen*," he snatched the thunderbolt from heaven! The Electro-Magnetic Telegraph seizes upon the lightning itself and endows its flashes with intelligence. It bids the terrible slave toil in the empire of a master. It harnesses the last conquered rebel in the car of mind, and seizing upon the reins, bids it execute high purposes ten thousand miles away at the very moment they are conceived. The speaking lightning has no limit—it has no time. It flashes from either pole of the earth to the other, in an interval which a superior being only could compute!

We have essayed to describe this extraordinary invention which Professor Morse has the honor of having presented to America and

to the world. We shall endeavor to trace its progress and show the extent of its present application in this country and in Europe, and also the destinies which are likely to attend it in the future.

The Electro-Magnetic Telegraph, whether we consider it as it came from the hands of Mr. Morse, or as its improvement has been suggested by Mr. Page, depends upon the power of different substances when brought into contact, to develop electricity. In this it is as simple as the principle of the steam engine, which is resolvable into the power of contraction and expansion which water possesses at a high temperature. The science of galvanism, which is but yet in its earliest infancy, furnishes the ground-work and the essential condition of the telegraph. The property of the galvanic current which induces it to travel over iron wire, is an indispensable condition. Discovery has not paused, however, with the mere use of wire. The galvanic current will, to a certain extent, admit even the earth as a substitute. Galvanic currents—and here amazement is the natural feeling—galvanic currents will travel from each extremity of a wire, meet and pass each other in their opposite progress, without sustaining any interruption. But more than all, and the most extraordinary phenomenon, galvanic currents leap from bank to bank of a river without the intervention of cord or conductor. Upon these facts and principles depend the brilliant application of the Telegraph.

The principles of this instrument are so simple, that they may be comprehended by any one who will give a moment to the subject. A common galvanic battery is a thing familiar enough to most persons, and is capable of sending electrical currents through wires, whatever may be their length. These wires are made to terminate at the extremities of a bar of iron, which then becomes, of course, as it is technically termed, "charged." A bar of iron charged with electricity or magnetism in this way, it is also common knowledge, will attract another bar, and continue its grasp upon it while the electrical influence continues. Disturb the influence, and the attracted bar is at once released, and falls. This second bar performs the work of the Telegraph. Attracted or repelled, as the electricity operates or ceases to operate upon the wires, it produces a motion which may be applied to practical purposes. The individual who has command of the electrical fluid or current, whatever may be his distance, has command, as a matter of course then, of the bar with which it communicates, and may regulate all its motions to suit his pleasure. If this bar were connected with a steel point and a sheet of paper, he might make such impressions upon the sheet of paper as suited him. He might puncture it in one point, or two, or three, or any number of points; he might inscribe it with lines, and all of this by his control of the electrical battery before him. He could attribute to these points, set of points, or lines, alphabetical values which would render them capable of translation into intelligible language in a moment. This is the whole mystery of what Professor Morse has done; but simple as it is, we repeat our observation, it is the most magnificent effort of the mind of man.

One of the earliest practical applications of the Telegraph was made in May, 1844, when the Democratic Convention was in session in Baltimore, and its proceedings were reported, as they occurred, at

Washington. The same line, we are told by Mr. Morse, in a letter to the Secretary of the Treasury, operated during eight months, day and night, and at all hours of the day and night, without being interrupted altogether as much as twenty-four hours. The two principal disturbances were a fire in Baltimore, which destroyed one of the posts, and the fall of a tree across the wires. These accidents were remedied soon enough for the Telegraph to give the first notice of them.

Mr. Morse mentions the following instance of the practicability of his Telegraph:

"In October, a deserter from the United States ship Pennsylvania, lying at Norfolk, who had also defrauded the purser of the ship of some $600 or $700, was supposed to have gone to Baltimore. The purser called at the telegraph office in Washington, stated his case, and wished to give notice in Baltimore, at the same time offering a reward for the apprehension of the culprit. The name and description of the offender's person, with the offer of the reward, were sent to Baltimore, and in ten minutes the warrant was in the hands of the officers of justice for his arrest; and, in half an hour from the time that the purser preferred his request at Washington, it was announced from Baltimore by the telegraph, 'The deserter is arrested; he is in jail. What shall be done with him?'"

A game of drafts was played upon the instrument by two individuals at Washington and Baltimore, with the facility of players at the same table. So independent, too, was the telegraph of all questions of storm and darkness, that on an intensely dark night in December, with torrents of rain and storms of wind, "it seemed more than ordinarily mysterious, to see a company around a table in a warm, retired chamber, on such a night in Washington, playing a game of chess with another company similarly situated in Baltimore—the darkness, the rain and the wind, being no impediment to instantaneous communication."

With respect to the capacity of the wonderful influence to overleap rivers, without the intervention of artificial conductors, Professor Morse tells us that in 1842, having to make some experiments between Governor's island and Castle Garden, near New York, a vessel accidentally spoiled his experiment, by drawing up on her anchor part of his wire. In the mortification of failure, sleep fled from his eyelids; and while tossing upon his pillow, the thought was suggested; that even water might be made the vehicle of communication. It was the Eureka of Archimedes; the experiment succeeded beyond all expectation; and the Susquehanna river, at Havre de Grace, a mile wide, furnished the means of deciding it.

Preparations are now being extensively made to introduce the telegraph into every part of the United States. A company was organized last spring to construct a continuous line from Washington to New York. The part of it between Philadelphia and New York is completed, with the exception of a very few miles, on which the posts only are yet put up. The remaining portion from Philadelphia to Baltimore, will be prosecuted with all possible dispatch.

Another company charged itself with a line from New York to Buffalo, and the whole distance from Albany to that place is nearly

completed with two wires. The Buffalo Commercial Advertiser gives the following estimate of the probable expense and income of such a line:

Distance from Buffalo to New York	437 miles.
Cost of construction $180 per mile, is	$85,860
Same amount of stock issued to patentees,	85,860
	$171,720
Interest on that sum is	$12,020
Repairs, superintendents and operators	10,000
	$22,020
After paying all expenses and interest on the capital, there is left, calculating the income at $140 a day for 300 days, throwing out Sundays and the odd days for contingencies, whole amount	$42,000
Deduct for repairs, superintendence and operators	10,000
	$32,000

Or about 20 per cent. on the whole capital invested.

Income estimated as follows:

75 Bankers, 2s. a day, is	$18 75
40 Insurance companies, at 2s.	10 00
33 Daily papers at 8s.	33 00
100 Weekly papers at 2s.	25 00
37 Transportation companies at 2s.	9 25
60 Brokers at 15 cents a day	9 00
40 Flouring mills at 2s.	10 00
Police, embracing New York, Buffalo, and intermediate places, say	5 00
Travelers	10 00
Merchants and other business men	10 00
	$140,00

An arrangement was accomplished in November, 1845, for the construction of a line from New York to Boston, the holes of which it was said some time ago were dug as far as Springfield, if not farther, and the posts were up on a greater part of the distance. This line is in all probability finished by now. We exhibit the following table of charges upon it:

Tariff of charges for transmitting a communication of fifteen words, or less number, by New York and Boston Telegraph Association.

	Boston	Worcester	Springfield	Hartford	New Haven	Bridgeport	New York
Boston		10	15	15	15	15	25
Worcester	10	—	10	10	15	15	15
Springfield	15	10	—	10	10	10	15
Hartford	15	10	10	—	10	10	15
New Haven	15	15	10	10	—	10	15
Bridgeport	15	15	10	10	10	—	10
New York	25	15	15	15	15	10	—

Rule.—The angle of the two places brought into correspondence, indicates the amount of charge.

For every addition of ten, or a less number of words, add to the charge five cents.

In all communications, the name of the sender, the address of the communication, and the necessary directions of the sender for the disposition of it, will be gratis.

The work on this line is in a good state of forwardness, and will be finished between New Haven and Boston in the course of this month.

In the summer of the same year, a line was projected from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh and St. Louis, with a branch to Lake Erie. Money to extend it to Pittsburgh has been raised. From Harrisburg to Lancaster is finished, and the rest of the distance to Philadelphia is in rapid progress.

From Buffalo to Lockport, thirty-eight miles, are in successful operation.

From Boston to Lowell, twenty-five miles, a line is nearly completed. Various lines are in course of construction in the States of Massachusetts and New York, of which we may particularly mention those leading down to the offing from the harbors of the cities of New York and Boston.

A grand route is contemplated from Washington to New Orleans, operations upon which will soon be undertaken. A writer upon the subject, however, remarks:

"The arrangement for sending an agent South, to push forward the Magnetic Telegraph extension from Washington to New Orleans has not yet been consummated, and there is some doubt if it will be done at once. There is a strong disposition here among the telegraph people to make the line, but still the parties seem disposed to hold back until the New York and Boston, and New York and Philadelphia lines are in operation, and the practical results of a long line between important cities are ascertained. To what extent the commercial interests are going to use this method of communication is still a matter of theory, and although the stockholders of those lines are very sanguine of the profits of their enterprise, yet they can approach Southern capitalists with more confidence, if they can show them a large and profitable employment of the northern lines. The New York and Philadelphia line is completed from this city to Somerville, about seventy miles, and has been tested. From Philadelphia this way a portion is also in operation. The gap is about thirty miles, which has the posts and wires up, but which has not yet been tried. By the first of February the New York and Boston line will be connected by the magnetic wires."

"We encounter," says AMOS KENDALL, Esq., to whom we are indebted for some of our information upon the subject, "some unforeseen difficulties, and have been much disappointed by erroneous estimates as to the time requisite to build these lines; but nothing has occurred to shake the perfect confidence entertained as to the practicability and profit of this great enterprise."

In illustration of the capacity of the telegraph to convey "a given amount of information in a given time," it has been stated, that nearly a whole column of a large newspaper was transmitted in thirty minutes, more rapidly than it could be transcribed by the reporter.

Mr. Morse enters into a calculation to show the relative advantages on the score of economy and efficiency, of the telegraphic system as it prevails in Europe and this country. It appears that England, for the use of a "semaphore" telegraph between London and Portsmouth, seventy-two miles, working at the average rate, for three years, of only four hours a day, expended the sum of $15,118 per annum. It also appears that the French telegraphic system has been carried to

greater extent and perfection than any other in the world. That there are five great lines radiating from Paris:

The Calais line, from Paris to Calais	152	miles.
The Strasbourg line, from Paris to Strasbourg	255	"
The Brest line, from Paris to Brest	325	"
The Toulon line, from Paris to Toulon	317	"
The Bayonne line, from Paris to Bayonne	425	"
	1474	miles.

This system is an annual expense to the French government of $202,000, and like the English is unavailable for practical purposes the greater part of the line. The American Magnetic Telegraph, on the contrary, is always ready for service, and may be maintained at a much less expense, as will appear from the following statement:

"The French telegraph requires, for the distance of 1,474 miles, no less than 519 stations—averaging one for about every three miles. The number of stations of the magnetic telegraph, on the contrary, is optional. The two stations—one only at Baltimore and one at Washington—show that they may be at least 40 miles apart; and there is no reason to doubt, from experiments that have been made, that 100 miles, or even 500 miles, would give the same results. In the maintenance, therefore, of stations, the magnetic telegraph would require but fifteen stations (assuming that 100 miles is the utmost limit of transmission between two stations, which is not probable); while the French requires 519 for the same distance. When to this are added the facts, that the magnetic telegraph is at all times available, at every hour of the day or night, irrespective of weather; that in comparison with the visual telegraphs, it communicates more than a hundred-fold the quantity of intelligence in the same time; that it is originally constructed at a less cost, all things considered; that it is maintained for less, and that it is capable, by a rate of charges for transmitting intelligence, not only of defraying all its expenses, but, if desired, of producing a revenue; we may be permitted to hope that when these great advantages are fully understood, the system will receive that attention from the government which its intrinsic public importance demands."

We cannot conclude this paper without expressing the hope that the magnetic telegraph will, to a large extent, be taken under the patronage of the American government, and that so powerful an instrument for the conveyance of intelligence to every portion of an immense country, will meet with the favor it so richly merits. We are not sure if the government has the right to establish the mail monopoly, that it has not the right to establish the telegraphic. Whether or not, however, it is most expedient for this course to be adopted, or whether it would not be better to leave it to the control of private enterprise, we are unprepared at this moment to pronounce an opinion. The subject will no doubt be acted on by Congress, as it has been suggested in the late report of the Postmaster-General, and Mr. Morse has not been wanting in urging it upon their attention.

There is one view of the subject, however, which has not been sufficiently attended to, and that is its connection with the national defenses. Mr. Morse makes a remark upon this head, with which we shall conclude our sheet:

"But when all that transpires of public interest at New Orleans, at St. Louis, at Pittsburgh, at Cincinnati, at Buffalo, at Utica, at Albany, at Portland, at Portsmouth, at Boston, at New York, at Philadelphia, at Baltimore, at Washington, at Norfolk, at Richmond, at Charleston, at Savannah, and at all desired intermediate points, shall be *simultaneously* known in each and all these places together—when all the agents of the government in every part of the country are in instantaneous communication with head-quarters—when the several departments can at once learn the actual existing condition of their remotest agencies, and transmit at the moment their necessary orders to meet any exigency—then will some estimate be formed of the powers and advantages of the Magnetic Telegraph."

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Art. IV.—COMMERCIAL POLITY OF THE ANCIENTS AND MODERNS.

The law-merchant, we have it on the authority of one of the first legal writers of the present age, consists of certain principles of equity and usages of trade which general convenience and a common sense of justice have established to regulate the dealings of merchants and mariners in all the commercial countries of the civilized world. The law-merchant, says another, is a branch of the law of nations, and is regularly and constantly adhered to. The *usage* of merchants is alluded to in sacred writ as early as the time of Abraham, upwards of eighteen hundred years before that of Christ.

In the present article, we design exhibiting the rise and progress of the various systems of commercial law which have been admitted and are now admitted to a general authority among the different trading nations of the earth.

The earliest maritime regulations of which we have any knowledge, are those which were formed by the Rhodians, a people who, nearly a thousand years before the Christian era, had attained to great influence and power. This body of laws were received among the different nations of antiquity with a respect bordering on veneration. They were received at Athens and throughout the Ægean and Mediterranean Seas. The Emperor Augustus, at Rome, admitted them to the highest authority in the empire; and his successor, Antoninus, observed, in relation to a question he was called upon to solve, that it ought to be decided by the Rhodian laws, which were of paramount authority in such cases. The Romans digested the fragments which remained of these laws, in one of the titles of the *Pandects*, and all that we know of them now is to be found there. The existing collection of laws entitled *Rhodian Laws*, are admitted as genuine by some of the first civilians, and denied by others.

The Athenians, taught by Themistocles, aimed at the sovereignty of the seas. We are told by Plutarch, that the profession of merchandise was honorable in Greece. There were numerous laws relative to the rights and interests of merchants enacted, and a particular institution at Athens took cognizance of contracts and controversies between merchants and mariners.

reign of a politic prince, under the auspices of a wise and enlightened minister; by laborious and learned persons, who selected the most valuable principles of all the maritime laws then existing; and which in matter, manner and style, is one of the most finished acts of legislation that ever was promulgated.

The French Ordinance of Marine owes its origin to Louis XIV. and his distinguished ministers, particularly Colbert; but the immediate authors of it are unknown. Valin supposes that its principles were derived from the Rhodians, from the Roman Law, the *Consolato*, the ordinances of Charles V. and Philip II. of Spain, the judgments of Oleron, the ordinances of Wisburg and the Teutonic Hanse, the insurance codes of Antwerp and Amsterdam, the Guidon and French ordinances prior to 1660.

Neither England nor America have ever solemnly enacted a code of maritime law. The jurisprudence of those countries upon all questions arising out of the law-merchant, is determined on the principles of the different foreign codes, ancient and modern, we have been enumerating. Numerous private treatises on commercial law are referred to as authority in both countries, particularly those of Malynes, Beawes, Millar, Park, Marshall, Abbott, Chitty, Holt, and Chancelor Kent, whose admirable work has furnished us, on the present occasion, with many of our facts and references.

English and American lawyers look, however, in questions of a commercial character, to the high authority of cases which have been adjudged in their courts. Lords Mansfield and Stowell, on the English bench, have made a series of brilliant decisions on merchant and marine law, which are to be found in the volumes of English reports. "They will be contemplated," says Mr. Marshall, "with applause and veneration, as long as depth of learning, soundness of argument, enlightened wisdom and the chaste beauties of eloquence hold any place in the estimation of mankind."

Maritime law, says Kent, can now be studied in the adjudged cases with at least as much profit, and with vastly more pleasure, than in the dry, formal, didactic treatises and ordinances professedly devoted to the science. The doctrines are there reasoned out at large, and practically applied. The arguments at the bar, and the opinions from the bench, are intermingled with the gravest reflections, the most scrupulous morality, the soundest policy, and a thorough acquaintance with all the various topics that concern the great social interests of mankind.

Art. V.—CITIES OF THE VALLEY OF THE MISSISSIPPI AND OHIO.

THE growth of the various cities which scatter themselves throughout the valley of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers, has been so rapid and extraordinary, as scarcely to be credited by those whose minds have been educated in other sections of the world. We may suppose if the same ratio of increase is preserved, that in progress of time towns and cities will rear themselves among us which will vie in populousness with those of Asiatic climes. If the West continues its

rapid progress for the next fifty years unabated, and the same proportion of population at the expiration of that period reside in cities, it has been computed by an intelligent writer, that there will be at least twenty cities westward of the Alleghany mountains with a population of half a million of human beings each. If such a thought as this does not awake in our bosoms true conceptions of the prospective greatness of our country, we know not what will.

In the last number of the Commercial Review, we sketched the rise and progress of New Orleans in wealth and opulence. In the present number it is our intention to give a brief notice of many of those cities which have been and are still contributing to enrich the great emporium of the West, and with it the commerce of the whole nation.

We begin with NATCHEZ.* In 1719, Bienville, governor of the French province of Louisiana, established a fort on the site which is now occupied by this town. It is spoken of as a place beautiful then to the eye, well adapted for trade, and in the occupancy of the Natchez tribe of Indians. As early as 1721, some evidences of civilization were to be marked in the vicinity. The fort was surrounded by farms devoted to the culture of provisions, indigo and tobacco. The infant settlers provoked by their encroachment the retribution of the savage, who succeeded in extirpating the thriving seats of Yazoo and Natchez. This injury was, however, punished soon after by the French settlers with a severity seldom surpassed. In 1823, Natchez had a population of 700. In 1843, the total population was estimated at above six thousand, and the trade in cotton reached annually to 50,000 bags. The place presents a handsome appearance on the bank of the Mississippi, and is distant 285 miles from New Orleans.

VICKSBURG is elevated on a hill between one and two hundred feet above the high water mark of the Mississippi. Its population is about 3,500, and its trade in cotton between 70 and 80,000 bags. Several railroads have their terminus at this place. The one to Jackson, the seat of government of the State, fifty miles, has been some time in operation, and in the opinion of most of the inhabitants, has been an injury rather than an advantage to the trade of Vicksburg. A strong disposition seems to be evinced to extend the road to Brandon, and ultimately to connect it with the great route extending to the Atlantic sea-board at Charleston and Savannah. Vessels of the largest size might find anchorage in the river opposite the city. Vicksburg was incorporated as a town in 1825, and as a city ten years after. Distance from New Orleans, 408 miles.

MEMPHIS is situated on the Chickasaw Bluffs, in the south-western part of the State of Tennessee. It is, comparatively speaking, a new town, but has been progressing at a most surprising ratio within a few years back. A few settlers fixed themselves upon the site of the place in 1820, but no advance of any character was made for many years. In fact, the main improvement has been of very recent date. No place in all the West has greater facilities of trade than Memphis; and the whole appearance of the city is that of activity and enterprise. The late Southern and Western Convention held in

* For most of the statistical facts in the present article, we are indebted to a work on the Mississippi Valley, published in 1844, by Kimball & James, of Cincinnati.

its midst, will no doubt have the effect to stimulate the greatest efforts among the citizens, and when the railroad which they are so earnest about throws them within the reach of the sea-board, and opens a vast interior trade upon the town, it may be expected to attain to great prosperity. Its present population is estimated at 10,000, and its trade in cotton must be considerably over 100,000 bags annually. Its distance is 798 miles from New Orleans.

ST. LOUIS. This place was settled by the French anterior to the period of the American revolution. In 1810 St. Louis had 1,400 inhabitants, a small portion of which only were Americans and negro slaves. In that year it is stated that six houses were built. In 1840 the population was 16,000. There were 25 commission stores, with a capital of near a million dollars; 214 retail establishments, with a capital of nearly four million dollars. Machinery manufactures, $169,807; metals, $59,000; bricks and lime, $122,500; hats, caps and bonnets, $77,600; mills, $185,608; barrels of flour, 13,956.

The following report will exhibit the progress of St. Louis better than we can hope to do it ourselves. It was drawn up last November by a committee appointed on behalf of the citizens of that town, and is therefore entitled to the highest authority.

"The city of St. Louis is placed on a permanent and commanding site, the foundation being a limestone bluff of sufficient elevation above high water mark. It is eighteen miles below the junction of the Mississippi and Missouri rivers, and about forty below the mouth of the Illinois. The United States arsenal is on the bank of the river immediately adjacent to the southern limits of the city, and Jefferson barracks eight miles farther down. St. Louis being the first convenient location for a city below the mouth of the Missouri, is naturally considered the head of navigation for the larger class of steamboats trading to New Orleans, as it is the stopping-point of the smaller ones engaged in the trade of the upper Mississippi, Missouri and Illinois. It is consequently at this point that the changes and transhipments take place, necessary to forward to market the vast agricultural and mineral products of Iowa and Wisconsin, and the most fertile and productive portions of Missouri and Illinois.

"The imports and supplies for those regions necessarily are furnished by, and pass through St. Louis, which renders it the grand emporium of the trade of the upper Valley of the Mississippi, as evidenced by the fact of its being, next to New Orleans, the greatest steamboat port in the West, if not in the world. Its tonnage as registered at the United States Custom House—the city being also a port of entry—amounts to 20,424 tons, against 14,727, in the year 1842; an increase of nearly 40 per cent. in three years. In addition to this amount owned at St. Louis, as much more tonnage is required by its trade during the spring season, which is furnished from New Orleans and the cities on the Ohio river. The total of steamboat arrivals at St. Louis, was in 1839, 1,476, with an aggregate tonnage of 213,193 tons. In 1840, the arrivals were 1,721—tonnage, 244,185. In 1844, the arrivals were 2,105; and tonnage 371,691, of which 1,121 arrivals took place in the months of March, April, May, June and July, giving nearly eight per day. The arrivals and aggregate of tonnage this year, will be equal to those of the last, although the

Missouri and Illinois rivers have been, for the last two months, almost closed to navigation by unusual low water. The arrivals for the month of May alone, this season, were three hundred, nearly 10 per diem, with an aggregate tonnage of 55,024 tons.

"From these figures, some idea may be formed of the vast amount of the commerce, dependent for many facilities in its transaction upon the city of St. Louis, and which, as the gradual increase proves, is yet in its infancy. What this commerce, now believed to exceed fifty millions of dollars per annum, will amount to in time to come, when Missouri and Illinois, Iowa and Wisconsin, shall be thoroughly settled and cultivated, and the trade of Oregon, New Mexico and California, flow down the Missouri, it is impossible even to conjecture.

"From the records kept by the Harbor Master, it appears that 50,000 bags coffee, worth $600,000; 150,000 bags salt, worth $200,000; 12,000 hogsheads sugar, worth $700,000; and 200,000 packages of merchandise, consisting of dry-goods, boots and shoes, hardware, cutlery, furniture, fancy articles, &c., &c., which may be estimated, at fifty dollars a package, at about $10,000,000, will be landed and received at St. Louis this year, eleven and a half millions, for only a portion of the numberless articles imported. Four of the heaviest articles of export are selected, farther to illustrate the increase of this commerce. The lead received and shipped from St. Louis was in 1841, 453,000 pigs. In 1845 the amount will exceed 700,000; say 50,000,000 pounds, worth $1,600,000. Of wheat and flour, the receipts in 1841 were, in bushels wheat, 1,107,000 bushels. In 1845 the amount will be from a million and three quarters to two millions of bushels, worth over $1,200,000. The tobacco shipped in 1841 was 9,000 hogsheads. This year the receipts will go to 15,000 hogsheads, worth over $1,000,000. The hemp crop of 1841, landed at St. Louis, was 1,600 tons. In 1845 it will go to 10,000 tons, worth $700,000. The amounts of these two last important staples are less than usual this season, owing to short production last year, and the difficulty of getting them to market this fall, from the low stage of water in the upper rivers. To these articles must be added pork, bacon, lard, beef, bagging, bale rope, wool, furs and peltries, beeswax, corn, oats, hides, flaxseed, castor oil, beans, butter, cheese, onions, potatoes, tallow, hay, horses, mules, cattle, hogs and sheep, amounting to more than $3,000,000; and which, with two millions of specie, go to make up the list of our exports, and balance in part the imports. It must be remembered, that the returns for the heavy amounts of dry-goods, sent to New Mexico, are mostly made in specie—and that a vast amount of capital is annually brought into the country by emigrants, in the shape of merchandise, which is permanently invested, and requires no corresponding export to offset. This fact, in connection with the amounts supplied to the government for army subsistence and its Indian operations, if borne in mind, will reconcile the apparent discrepancy between the imports and exports.

"That the improvement of St. Louis has kept pace with the wants and necessities of this commerce, the following comparative statement of its increase in population and wealth since the year 1830 will abundantly show: The population of the city was—

n the year 1830,	5,852 souls.	Taxable property,		$1,144,000
" " 1835,	8,316 "	"	"	2,222,000
" " 1840,	16,291 "	"	"	8,658,000
" " 1845,	36,285 "	"	"	13,607,000

"The census was taken about the first of January, and the popution is now, no doubt, 40,000 in the city limits, to which may be lded 5,000 in the suburbs."

In consequence of great changes taking place annually in the bed nd channel of the Mississippi river, the trade of St. Louis will be ubjected to great risk in the future. Works have been undertaken r the prevention of the anticipated mischief, and large amounts een already expended. In the report of the citizens, the subject is rged strongly upon the attention of government.

The committee say—

"It is surely unnecessary to insist, at length, upon the inconvenices which the commerce of the whole upper Valley of the Mississippi must suffer should a change in the channel of the river, opposite t. Louis, render its wharves and docks, its warehouses and manuctories, inaccessible; and the millions expended in their erection eless. To say nothing of the loss to St. Louis and its inhabitants, ow long must it necessarily be, until another eligible site could be lected, and so improved as to accommodate this already enormous nd rapidly increasing commerce. Would it not be impossible, for ears, to supply the indispensable requirements of that commerce, us cut off and suspended?

"Who can calculate the losses that would be suffered, in the mean me, by the people of the great valley, in inconvenience, delays and xtra charges, for want of these facilities? But there are other conderations, affecting the immediate interests of the General Governent, as well as more remotely those of the people of the entire alley, and the inhabitants of the great American bottom in particur. These considerations are based upon the nature of the obstrucons, which threaten entirely to shut out St. Louis, the United States rsenal and Jefferson barracks, from the channel of the Mississippi ver. These obstructions consist of an immense sand bank called uncan's Island, extending from the United States arsenal to about e centre of the city, and lying near the Missouri shore. Comencing some distance below the upper end of this bar, another, alled Bloody Island, has formed, which lies in the middle of the annel, and extends up nearly to the northern limits of the city. he continual increase of these sand banks, and at the same time e widening and deepening of the channel east of Bloody Island, y the rapid abrasion of the main land on the Illinois side, demonrate that the current must soon cease to pass along the Missouri ore, unless preventive measures are speedily resorted to, to counract the natural causes now in operation to produce such a result. he effect must be to leave St. Louis and the United States arsenal out a mile from the river. It is easy to see the loss and inconvelence the Government itself would suffer in such an event, when e position of St. Louis and the arsenal, and their relation to all the sts now in existence, or hereafter to be established north and west this point, are considered. The amount of stores, Indian annui-

ties, munitions of war, money, &c., kept by the government in this vicinity, and hence distributed to more distant stations, and the loss and inconvenience that would result from a change, would alone justify immediate measures, to prevent such a necessity. But the evil will not stop here. The nature of the alluvial bottom on the Illinois shore, is such that the abrasion must continue with accelerated force and rapidity, as a heavier current—in this event the whole force of the river—will be directed against it, until the bed of the river would be entirely changed, and the channel pass along the base of the Illinois bluff, six miles distant. A chain of lakes in that part of the great bottom, indicate that such has once been the position of the channel of the river. In this event, St. Louis would become an inconsiderable inland village, and Jefferson barracks and the arsenal be abandoned, although they have cost government $350,000.

"But a far more important consequence of such a change, would be the increased danger and difficulty of navigation for many miles caused thereby, and the loss of untold millions of property annually passing over that part of the river; not to mention the destruction and devastation which would result to the inhabitants of the American bottom whose farms would rapidly disappear, and become portions of the turbid current. Every one conversant with the character of the Mississippi river knows, that any change of the channel into a new bed is attended with increased peril to navigation, as the stumps and logs imbedded in the alluvial soil must be found, to be avoided; and frequently cause the loss of many boats, involving property to a large amount, and the lives of valuable citizens, before they become known, or are sufficiently apparent to be removed by the snag boats.

"A few hundred thousand dollars, properly expended in making dykes from Bloody Island to the Illinois shore, will prevent all these threatened evils, which have probably so far been rather accelerated by the unfinished works, commenced by the government at the foot of Bloody Island. This work is *national*, and not local in its character; for its advantages will accrue to the General Government, as well as to the people of almost the whole Valley of the Mississippi. The fact that it would save from ruin the 40,000 inhabitants of St. Louis, and also benefit the adjacent portions of Missouri and Illinois, should certainly take nothing from its claims, as one of the western interests worthy the attention of Congress."

Louisville, Ky. About the year 1780 was built Fort Steuben, on the spot where now stands the flourishing town of which we are about to treat. In 1795, the town had but a single street to boast of. In 1840, its population was 21,210; its retail stores 270, and capital over $2,000,000; and its capital in manufacturing nearly $1,000,000. The exports of Louisville are bagging, bale rope, and tobacco, for the most part, but large quantities of hemp are carried to St. Louis to be manufactured. Louisville, however, possesses several bagging mills. In the six years ending with 1843, the number of pieces of bagging shipped from Louisville was about 400,000, and the number of coils of rope about 300,000. Its tobacco shipments average at the present time, 7 or 8,000 hogsheads annually. The city is lighted with gas; and since it has set about manufactures, is

becoming more and more flourishing. In the year 1842, the number of buildings erected was estimated at 437 within the limits of the city. The manufacturing companies are very numerous, and embrace works in hemp, iron, cotton, paper, tallow, lumber, etc., etc. Thirty-five steamboats were built at Louisville in 1843, at an average cost of $20,000. The exports of the place reach from 25 to $30,000,000, and large amounts are imported direct from foreign countries.

PITTSBURGH. The vicinities of this city may be considered as classic American ground. Some of the most sanguinary battles have been fought there. In 1784 the site of the town was surveyed. Two years afterward, it contained 100 houses and 600 inhabitants. In 1796, the population had reached 1,300; and its incorporation as a city was not until 1816. Before 1805, there had been launched at Pittsburgh a brig of 200 tons, and two ships of 300 and 400 tons, destined for the great ocean. In 1807, the population did not reach 5,000. In 1817, there were 8,000 inhabitants, and eight steam manufactories of nails. In 1840, the population, exclusive of suburbs, was 21,116; capital in retail business, $4,465,000; and in wholesale, $1,241,000; capital in manufactures, $2,000,000. The most important manufactures are machinery, hardware, tobacco and furniture. A very large proportion of the western steamboats are built at Pittsburgh. The city is distant 2,004 miles by water from New Orleans.

CINCINNATI has little of antiquity to boast, but has enteprise and prosperity beyond example. The city, according to the authority to which we are largely indebted on the present occasion, "though the second city of the West in wealth, in population, and in business, is the youngest city in years of any principal town beyond the mountains. Her history has none of the doings of the ancient French to enliven its recital, and but little of the early adventurers, which has not been repeated a hundred times in print. Cities were founded at Pittsburgh, Louisville, St. Louis, Natchez and New Orleans, before it occurred to the mind of any speculator that a place could be made to flourish here. Not even an Indian trader had been known to stop for the purposes of traffic—certainly no post nor establishment of the kind was made. The only indications in its favor were, that the prior occupants of the country, the race of the mounds, had regarded it as a place of some importance. Their city had occupied the handsomest part of the Cincinnati basin, but at this day not a trace is left of their constructions."*

In 1789, there was a military post at Cincinnati; the place was incorporated as a town in 1805, and as a city in 1809. In 1840, the white population reached 44,124, and the colored 2,258; the population at the present time cannot be much short of double that amount. The number of buildings increased from 1,070 in 1815, to 2,495 in 1826, and 6,781 in 1840. The trade of the town is immense. The number of hogs annually packed for shipment cannot fall short of 400,000. During the year 1843, there were built at Cincinnati 30 new steamboats, averaging 250 tons each, and of a total value of $618,000.

We intended carrying out our observations so as to include many other western cities; but time and space at present will not admit.

* Mississippi Valley, p. 42.

We were particularly desirous of giving a detailed view of the now flourishing town of Nashville, in Tennessee, and of our noble sister city of Mobile. If any citizens, however, of either of these places will furnish us the desired sketches, we shall be under the most lasting obligations, and in fact, we should be happy indeed to have a more detailed, and perhaps more correct exhibition than we have been able to give, of all the cities in the western valleys.

Art. VI.—HISTORY AND DOCTRINE OF BILLS OF EXCHANGE, WITH THEIR APPLICATION IN THE COURTS OF LOUISIANA.

It is a pleasing theme to trace the rise and progress of that great code of commercial law which is indebted for its origin to enlightened modern reason. Commerce is the life-blood of nations, and the topic which we now select has accelerated its motion to its present healthy state. We propose a condensed and popular account of this part of the machinery of commerce, freely borrowing from text books all that is not original.

It is said that the occasion for the payment of debts or delivery of money in a foreign country, and the desire to avoid the transmission of money itself, and the consequent risk of loss in the passage, was the occasion of the invention of Bills of Exchange.* This was their first *utility;* but since the great increase of commerce they have become the *evidence of valuable property*, and in a great measure, equivalent to specie, enlarging the capital stock of wealth in circulation, and thereby facilitating and increasing trade and commerce. It is still doubtful at what period, or by whom, *foreign bills of exchange* were first invented. It is clear that they were in use in the fourteenth century, as appears from a Venetian law of that period. They were introduced into England previously to the year 1381. Inland bills (which are so called because they are drawn and payable in the same State, all others being *foreign* bills) are said to have originated about the reign of Charles II. There is only one legal distinction of importance between foreign and inland bills, and that is, the former must be protested, the latter need not be. Bank checks are considered as inland bills. A bill of exchange takes its name from "*billet de change*," and in its origin was the mode of completing a previous distinct contract of exchange or bargain between A. and B. at one place, that A. would cause money to be paid to B. or his assign at another place, by C., a third person, and debtor to A., or supplied by him with value to the amount. It is legally defined to be an open letter of request and order, by one person on another, to pay a sum of money therein mentioned to a third person. It operates as an assignment to a third person of a debt due to the person drawing

* Thus Blackstone says: "If A. lives in Jamaica, and owes B. who lives in England, £1000, now if C. be going from England to Jamaica, he may advance B. this £1000, and take a bill of exchange, drawn by B. in England upon A. in Jamaica, and receive it when he comes thither: thus B. receives his debt at any distance of place by transferring it to C., who carries over his money in paper credit, without the risk of robbery or loss."

from the person upon whom it is drawn. There is this peculiarity, that in other contracts and securities there are generally only two parties, or at most a third as a guaranty; whereas, on account of the assignable and negotiable quality of a bill of exchange, there may be, and usually are, many more parties, severally liable for the due acceptance or payment of the bill. The person who makes or draws the bill is termed the drawer; he to whom it is addressed is, before acceptance, called the drawee, and after acceptance (which may be made in writing or verbally, and sometimes tacitly), the acceptor; the person in whose favor it is drawn is termed the payee, and when he indorses the bill, the indorser; and the person to whom he transfers it is called the indorsee or holder; and a person accepting, or paying in default of acceptance or payment by the drawee, is termed acceptor supra protest, or payer supra protest, or for honor. A bill of exchange is prescribed in Louisiana in five years from maturity. The security of bills of exchange is in some respects preferable to many others of a more formal nature; for each of the parties to a bill, by merely writing his name upon it, either as drawer, acceptor, or indorser, thereby impliedly guaranties the payment of it, and the consideration in respect of which he became a party to it can rarely be inquired into. From the circumstance also of the exposure of the contract to the public eye, there is a stronger stimulus on every party to a bill to take care that it be duly honored; whereas punctual payment of a guaranty or bond is not so frequent, and consequently less to be relied on in commerce, where certainty is so essential to the welfare of the merchant. The disadvantages accompanying this security, compared with others, are principally, that in case of the dishonor of the bill by the person on whom it is drawn, the holder must strictly, and with the utmost punctuality and precision, observe certain formalities peculiarly incident to this security; thus he must immediately give notice of the non-acceptance or non-payment to all the other parties, or he will lose the benefit of his security against them. The pernicious effects of a fabricated credit, by the undue use of accommodation bills of exchange, drawn out of the ordinary course of trade, have led to the ruin of many; the use of them, where there is no real demand subsisting between the different parties, nor an actual fund to resort to in case of need, is injurious to the public as well as to the parties concerned in the negotiation. But in cases where, from sudden and unexpected events, a particular branch of commerce may be temporarily affected, and the trader is possessed of, but not able to bring his commodities to a fair market in time to meet the payments for which he has to provide, the temporary assistance of friends, through the medium of bills of exchange, may save his credit and enable him to hold his goods till some fair opportunity of sale presents itself.

The doctrine of bills and notes in Louisiana differs, in some respects, from the general commercial law on these subjects. We shall exhibit the laws peculiar to our State in this connection as they exist at present, with as much brevity as possible. In reading our statutes, even the most intelligent jurist must be sagacious, if he can discover those which are repealed and those which are not. The repeal may be either express or implied. It is express when it is liter-

ally declared by a subsequent law. It is implied when the new law contains provisions contrary to, or irreconcilable with those of the former law.* Thus, the first act we have on bills and notes declares that the drawer of such, or other negotiable paper, shall never, in any case whatever, be admitted as a witness in any civil cause brought by the holder against any of the indorsers for the amount. This is the statute of 1823. By a decision of our Supreme Court, it is adjudged, that the general rules of evidence established by the civil code, must be considered as applicable to all contracts whatsoever. From these rules the court deduced the fact, that as the civil code is a posterior law, it having been promulgated anew, with amendments, in 1825, and as the provisions thereof are contrary to the act of 1823, the drawer of negotiable paper *can* be a witness against indorsers.† This being premised, in order to show the complexity of our laws upon this important branch of jurisprudence, we proceed to cull the wheat from the chaff of dead statutes.

Legal interest with us is five per centum; and on discounts by banks according to their charters,‡ conventional interest is eight per cent.; over that a forfeiture of the entire interest so contracted. If more is *paid*, it may be recovered back by suit, within twelve months of the time of payment.§ A contract tainted with usury is voidable only as to the usurious interest, and valid as to the principal.‖ Compound interest is not allowed.¶ Bills of exchange, and promissory notes payable in this State, bear interest only from day of protest or from judicial demand, unless otherwise stipulated on the face of negotiable paper.** Planters or other individuals, who have no domicil in New Orleans, nor in any other place in this State where banks are established, may *elect* a domicil in such place, for the payment of all notes which they might subscribe in favor of any bank of this State. The banking house elected to be expressed in the body of the note. The demand, protest and notice, are to be made at the elected domicil, and all proceedings and executions relative to the recovery of the amount of said notes, may be made against drawers and indorsers at the domicil agreed upon, before a court of said domicil. This privilege of suit at the place elected (wherever the debtor resides) is only given to banks by whom the notes are really owned; the intention of the Legislature being merely to establish a particular privilege in favor of the banks which may actuate them in lending their funds for the encouragement of agriculture.††

Notaries and parish judges‡‡ being bound to record all protests made by them, with mention of the notices given to the drawers or indorsers of the same, and their names, date, and manner of service, this declaration duly recorded under the signature of the notary and two witnesses, or a certified copy thereof, is received in all our courts as full proof of said notices, and all the matters therein stated.§§ Notaries may employ deputies to assist them in making protests and in

* Civil Code, Art. 23. † Waters *v.* Petrovic & Blanchard, 19 L. R. 584.
‡ C. C. 2895: Bank of Louisiana *v.* Sterling et. al. 2 L. R. 62. § Act of 1844.
‖ Walden *v.* City Bank, 2 Rob. 165. ¶ Hyde *v.* Brown, 5 L. R. 33.
** Act of 1821: McGuire *v.* Mead, 9 L. R. 314. †† Act of 1818.
‡‡ The new constitution has abolished the parish courts, the judges of which were *ex-officio*, notaries, out of the parishes of Orleans and Jefferson.
§§ Acts of 1821 and 1827.

the delivery of notices of protest.* In default of notaries, in the country, justices of the peace may make protests, in the presence of two witnesses residing in the parish, and who shall certify and subscribe the same as witnesses.†

When notes are indorsed for the benefit of the drawer, and that fact is mentioned in the note, if they are discounted by banks or individuals, or any money is obtained in consideration thereof, the indorsers are bound to the bearers just as much as if the said notes had been negotiated for their own account and benefit.‡

Bills of exchange, or other obligations for the payment of money, are not received as evidence of debt when the whole sum of *dollars* stated therein is expressed entirely in figures, unless proof is offered that the obligation was given for the sum expressed to be due or payable.§

The rate of damages allowed upon the usual protest for non-acceptance or non-payment of bills drawn or negotiated in this State, is as follows: on all bills drawn on and payable in foreign countries, ten per cent. upon the principal sum specified in the bill: on all bills drawn on and payable in any other State of the Union, five per cent. Such damages are in lieu of interest, charges of protest, and all other charges incurred previous to, and at the time of giving notice of non-acceptance or non-payment; but interest may be recovered upon the aggregate amount of the principal sum specified in such bill, and damages from time of notice of protest. Where the contents of such bill are expressed in the money of the United States, the amount and damages are ascertained without reference to the rate of exchange existing between this State and the place upon which the bill has been drawn at the time of notice—otherwise if the contents of the bill be in the currency of any foreign country; though if a value on that foreign currency is fixed by Congress, that value prevails.‖

Our days of public rest are: the first of January, the 8th of January, the twenty-second of February, the fourth of July, the twenty-fifth of December, Sundays and Good Friday. All bills or notes are due and payable on the second day of grace on these days; and on the first day of grace, when both the second and third are days of rest; for instance, the fourth and fifth of July of the present year. In computing the delay allowed for giving notice, those days are not to be counted; and if the day or two days next succeeding the protest are days of rest, then the day following shall be computed as the first day after the protest.¶

Whenever the drawer, acceptor or indorser, does not reside in the town where the protest is made, the notary must put into the nearest post office where the protest is made his notice of protest, addressed to the party notified at his domicil. If the domicil is unknown to the notary, and whenever, after using all due diligence to obtain the necessary information thereon, the residence shall not be found, the notary must then put the notice into the nearest office, addressed to the drawer, acceptor, indorser, or others, at the place where the bill or note was drawn.**

* Act of 1844. † Act of 1823. ‡ Act of 1821. § Act of 1825.
‖ Act of 1838. ¶ Act of 1838. ** Act of 1827.

Art. VII.—AMERICAN LAKE COMMERCE.

THE immense value of this branch of our industry has not been generally understood and appreciated. It is common enough for us at the South and West to dwell with enthusiasm upon the growing greatness of the Mississippi trade, and speculate upon the possibility of its almost indefinite extension. We forget that for inland commerce the Mississippi has at least one rival, and that the position occupied by the great Father of Rivers, in relation to the wide western domain, is precisely that which the continuous chain of lakes on the northern frontier occupies in relation to the greatly important coun try bordering upon them. We were never more forcibly impressed with the fact, than we were on examining a statistical paper which appeared a few weeks ago in the columns of the National Intelligencer; and although we do not at all agree with its author in many of his speculations, we cannot but think that his facts would be deeply interesting to our readers. We shall, therefore, in the present article, make an exposition of the importance and value of the lake trade, basing ourselves upon the paper in question, and such other sources of information as may be within our reach.

Connecting the waters of the Ohio and the Illinois rivers with Erie and Michigan, and connecting the different lakes with the city of New York, a system of works has been constructed and is in progress, which, taken together, are valued at nearly fifty millions of dollars. To warrant this enormous expenditure, we have the following statistics of trade in the principal cities of the lake country:

CHICAGO, Illinois—Lake Michigan.—This rapidly growing city exported in 1840 $228,635, and imported $562,106; and four years afterward had so far swelled its trade as to furnish $1,008,207 in exports, and require nearly $1,500,000 in imports. Its tonnage in 1843 was 117,000 tons. Its population, from 4,470 in 1840, had increased in 1845 over three hundred per cent! Wheat exported in 1844, nearly one million of bushels.

MICHIGAN CITY, Indiana.—In eight years, the export trade of Michigan City had made the astonishing increase of $262,687 from $15,000. In 1833 it amounted to the latter sum; in 1841, to the former. The imports in the same time increased from $100,000 to $398,762.

DETROIT AND MICHILIMACKINAC, Mich.—The former of these places had in 1844, 14,901 tons, and the latter about 500 tons shipping.

SANDUSKY, MILAN AND HURON, Ohio.—Tonnage, exports and imports.

		Tonnage.	Exports.	Imports.
Sandusky,	1844,	2,407 tons.	$813,830	———
"	1843,	——— "	535,200 wheat & flour	———
Milan & Huron	1843,	2,371 "	825,098	$634,711

CLEVELAND, Ohio.—In 1843, the exports of Cleveland were stated as amounting to $5,502,108, and the imports to $5,591,651. During the same year the lake commerce of the city was valued at $11,000,000; and in the following year the receipts of flour by the Ohio canal alone reached about three and a half millions of bushels,

and the tonnage of the place was estimated at 14,196 tons. Cleveland furnished to Canada in 1842, $961,954 in wheat and flour, and increased in population about sixty per cent. for the five years preceding 1845. The number of arrivals, including steamboats, for 1844, was reported as 2,761, the departures 2,767, of which 224 were from, and 226 to Canada.

Oswego, New York.—Thirty-seven thousand tons of merchandise arrived at this port for re-shipment for the East in 1844. Its native tonnage at that period was 9,387 tons. Its population increased fifty per cent. from 1840 to 1844, and was at the last estimate nearly 7,000.

Buffalo, N. Y.—224,543 tons of merchandise were deposited here in 1844, for re-shipment by the canals to other sections of the country. Nearly two-thirds of this amount consisted of agricultural products. During the whole of 1844, the arrivals at the Hudson from Buffalo and Black Rock were, in wheat and flour, 160,179 tons; and from the opening of navigation in that year to the 22d of July, the value of goods arriving at these places and re-shipped was $6,124,794. The population of Buffalo in 1845 was 28,346, having increased 50 per cent. in little more than four years.

The export of wheat in 1843, from Cleveland, Detroit, Sandusky, and Chicago, was 1,894,943 bushels in addition to 812,903 barrels of flour, equaling in amount 5,959,457 bushels, and in value $4,500,000.

In 1836, Export of Lakes,	$ 2,324,248	
" Import "	14,137,026	
		$16,461,274
In 1841, Export of Lakes,	$32,432,581	
" Import "	33,483,441	
		$65,916,022
In 1843, Exports and Imports estimated,		$100,000,000

Ohio produced, in 1844, nearly 16,000,000 bushels wheat, but three-fifths of the crop made in that State in 1842, and yet Ohio exported, in 1844, about 8,000,000 bushels, nearly one half going by way of the lakes. The surplus produce of wheat in Illinois will be 6,000,000 bushels, and the whole yield of Michigan about 7,000,000 bushels the present year.

The whole value of lake commerce, for the year 1843, was set down at $100,000,000 as before stated, and the gain in the last two years is thought to average ten per cent. per annum.

The number of vessels built and put in commission upon Lake Erie for the last year was forty-eight, of the total, 10,207 tonnage, and at a cost of $659,000. Between Buffalo and Chicago, since 1841, thirty-one steamers, eight propellers, and one hundred and forty sail vessels were constructed. The total cost of this fleet was $1,880,000, and tonnage 30,802. On Lake Ontario fifteen vessels were built of 3,787 tons capacity. At the present moment the trade of the lakes requires

60 Steamers,	21,500 tons	$1,500,000
20 Propellers,	6,000 "	350,000
50 Brigs,	10,000 "	
270 Schooners,	42,000 "	2,220,000

"It may be mentioned here," says our authority, "as a circum-

stance closely connected with the lake commerce, that a vessel of 350 tons burthen can pass through the Welland Canal, and take in a load at the wharf at Chicago, which need not be handled again until it arrives at Liverpool."

But a single steamer was to be found on the lakes in 1819. Eight years afterward witnessed the introduction of steam upon Lake Michigan. In 1840 the number of steamers on all the lakes was forty-eight; and in 1841 there were two hundred and fifty sail vessels on these waters, costing $1,250,000, and earning for the year $750,000. The total profits of navigation on the lakes for that year were $1,517,132 27.

Art. VIII.—LOUISIANA AGRICULTURAL AND MECHANICS' ASSOCIATION.

On the fifth of January last, the annual fair of this State Institution was held at Baton Rouge, We have been presented with a pamphlet containing a full report of its proceedings, together with the address delivered by T. B. Thorpe, Esq., of this city. The paper in addition embraces a variety of notes, agricultural and statistical, in illustration of the address, and an enumeration of the awards and premiums which were rendered to competitors.

It cannot but be gratifying to every well-wisher of the State, to mark the rapid progress which has been evinced in almost every department of it within the past few years. In legislation, in domestic and industrial concerns, in intelligence and enterprise, is exhibited that new and better spirit which has been exerting so large an influence. We scarcely know where to put our finger upon a point which has remained altogether without improvement.

If we take the State at large, the new constitution is as a great charter, the terms of which have been inserted, after the most solemn and deliberate counsels of the representatives of the people, and adopted by the people themselves almost with acclamation. A charter based upon high and enlightened principles, and however defective, like every other human instrument, in some of its parts, yet perfect as a whole, and losing nothing by a contrast with the best efforts of legislation in the present age.

If we take the capital of the State, we shall find it increasing in trade and population and in wealth. We shall find a system of public education adopted, which will throw light and knowledge within the reach of the children of destitution and sorrow, and at the same time, by its high schools, lyceums, literary and philosophical societies, universities and colleges, rear up citizens worthy of the republic, and capable of fulfilling their high parts in wielding its destinies.

We may go beyond these points, and mark the changes in the industrial and economical concerns of the State; and here we are presented, in the Fair of the Louisiana Institute, with a subject worthy of our deliberate attention and comment. It is through the agency of associations like these that reform, sound, vigorous, and healthy, is ever carried out. The intellectual, moral and practical elements of a

people are there brought together and made available for purposes of general interest and advantage. Mind is brought into collision with mind, emulation is excited, and in the generous rivalries of the occasion, the best fruits in the arts and sciences result.

In Europe, there is a general understanding and appreciation of this fact. It is but a short time since that we read a description of the magnificent achievements in French arts, agriculture and manufactures, as they were exhibited to thousands and hundreds of thousands in the splendors of a Parisian fair. Genius seemed to vie with itself in producing miracles of skill and beauty; and wealth and rank smiled upon the exhibition, and showered down golden rewards upon the competitors for favor. What may not be hoped from the introduction of institutions of this kind into the different States of a republic whose inhabitants have been so famed for the fruitfulness of their genius and enterprise? We have seen the effects already in the New England States and in the great empire of New-York, where the Fair of the American Institute alone attracted two hundred and fifty thousand visitors; and when these concentrations of skill and ingenuity shall become general in every section of our country, nothing will be wanting to advance us as a nation to the very highest rank.

But we return to the Louisiana Fair. The address of Mr. Thorpe exhibited a finely ordered fancy, a good head, and a better heart. The eulogium which he pronounces upon the homestead and its fireside joys will awake a response in every bosom; and the passages of true, glowing, and burning patriotism, which take as it were possession of the orator and his hearers, are to us among the highest merits of the production.

With the practical department of this address, we are from the nature of our work more concerned at the present moment, than with its style or its rhetoric; and we shall make such extracts from it as will exhibit the history and progress of the Association.

"What must be done by this Society, must and will be. Here we may look for the true standard of our State's intelligence. Just so long as it languishes, we may rest assured our internal resources are neglected, our agricultural interests indifferently conducted. If we examine into the expense and care bestowed in other countries upon associations like this, we shall see fully illustrated our own wants. To England, whither we may go for an example in this matter at least, we find the nobility and gentry prominent in their support. They understand the true source of wealth, and make agriculture, as mathematics, an exact science. They spend their thousands upon the analysis of soils, and the producing characters of earths; and the result is, that Great Britain commands the wealth, and through it, the ascendency of power in the Eastern world."

In relation to the agricultural capacities of Louisiana, Mr. Thorpe continues:

"It is no poetry, fellow-citizens, to say, that we may have in our fields the luxurious products of the tropics, and the sturdier ones of the temperate zone. Tobacco,* of the choicest flavor, rivaling the

* One-fourth of an acre of sterile land in East Feliciana, produced this last year the following amount of tobacco: On the 13th of November 400 pounds were gathered,

product of Cuba, has been raised in most profitable abundance upon our sterile lands, and needs but little capital and well-directed industry, to add a new staple to the products of our State. Wheat for our own use could be grown upon our broken lands, that would rival the rice that should lift its submerged head from our miscalled "swamps." The sugar cane and the corn rival in richness of vegetation and in the yield of their wealth. The orange mingles the perfume of its bridal blossoms with the sweet and variegated ones of the apple; and the ripening fruits of both can tempt the taste and please the eye, while perfecting side by side.* The indigenous silk-worm weaves its web over our trees, and the native mulberry beautifies our landscape with its trembling leaves. The wild grape and muscadine, in their convolving grasp, crush the forest trees on which they climb for support, make the air fragrant with their breath, and load the earth with their fruit. The wild indigo and the wild hemp fill the corners of our fences, and choke up the drains we make through our fields.† Yet all these wise counsels of nature, these beautiful and benevolent hints of Providence, are disregarded. We go abroad to supply the wants that should be gratified in abundance and with little cost at home. We build up the West in purchasing its hemp and its staples. We build up the North in consuming its wheat and its fruits. We send millions abroad for wines and silks. We make comparatively all cotton, and will not indulge our pleading soil with the production of fruits, of hemp, of silk, of wine, dividing labor, and thus enriching our State by new enterprises, that yield abundant wealth, and make us, as we should be, independent and happy within ourselves.

We have always thought that too much was made out of the absenteeism as it may be called, during the summer months, of our southern citizens and planters. We doubt not that some improvidence and evil is connected with the system; but the good effects are sufficiently numerous, we have thought, to counteract them. The mind and heart are both improved by travel. The views of the individual are expanded, and he is made to love his whole country by a familiarity with all its parts. These are the influences which bind every member of a great republic together, and when the occasion

that sold readily at 50 cents per pound. This tobacco was pronounced by cigar makers in New Orleans, to be superior to the Havana tobacco for wrappers, and many competent judges affirm, that for smoking no tobacco can be better. One of the advantages offered by this Louisiana tobacco as wrappers, is in the extreme delicacy of the ribs of the leaf, which are scarcely perceptible on the cigar, and allows the wrapper to fit nicely without fold or wrinkle. It is beautifully colored, and more handsomely spotted than the best Vuelté tobacco. The leaves too are very large, and thus well suited for the manufacture of the large varieties of cigars. This tobacco was raised from seed got from Cuba, and called the Turkish or Latakish tobacco.

* Within a few years, fruits of the most delicious quality have been raised in Louisiana, apples, pears, and peaches superior to those of New Jersey. The capacity of our State to raise the grape needs no argument; nature has written its capacity upon our forests. No country in the world is more favorable to the cultivation of the grape than Attakapas, or Opelousas. Judge Bry, of Monroe, and Mr. Wartell, of Opelousas, have devoted their attention to the culture of the grape with eminent success, and have proved that it can be raised to any extent, and in the most profitable manner for the making of wine.

† Previous to our Revolutionary war, the British government encouraged the cultivation of indigo in the colonies which now constitute part of the Southern States of this Union; and at the commencement of that war, more than half her supply of that important article of trade was produced thence.

comes which witnesses no more these kindly interchanges between the sections of our Union, it will be but another step in the progress to fashion them into different and independent nations. Mr. Thorpe, however, thinks otherwise.

"Why is it that our planters will consent to the inconveniences of crowded hotels, of ill-bred menials, of uncongenial society, and princely expenditure? Is it because we have no sunshine or flowers equal to the sterile North? Is it because we have no springs of chalybeate waters, or invigorating breezes from the open sea? No! We live in the land of flowers. The Spaniard, as the first white man that pressed our shores, proclaimed our country Florida. A hundred mineral waters devoted to health, unnoticed, gurgle through our piney woods, equal in value to those of Ballston or Saratoga; and the romantic shores of Biloxi, and the fairy islands of our Mexican Gulf, reveal charms for our acceptance more worthy than can be those of Nahant or Rockaway."

We now pass from the address to other parts of the pamphlet. By the report of the committee on agriculture, it appears that premiums for the best samples of sugar were awarded to Messrs. Packwood, Packwood & Benjamin, and Verloin Degruy; those from Packwood & Benjamin were for loaf sugar, made directly from the cane juice. The committee from these specimens report the following facts:

1st. In Rillieux's patent no shade of coloring matter is developed from the beginning to the end. 2d. The quantity of molasses which was customarily sixty gallons per hogshead of sugar, is reduced to fifteen gallons; the surplus is represented by an equivalent weight of sugar. 3d. This apparatus may be worked by the hands on the plantation without any experienced sugar maker. 4th. The economy of fuel is such that the bagasse is more than sufficient to make the crop.

We give the conclusion of the committee's report, so far as it is applicable to the great changes which have been going on in the State for the past year in the cultivation and manufacture of sugar.

"We have heard something said in very laudatory terms of a new process of clarifying the cane juice, from the honorable F. Garcia, of St. John the Baptist, jointly with Bertrand the apothecary of New Orleans. We report this only as a rumor, for the above gentlemen did not think proper to explain their process, or make an exhibition of it at the State Fair. We will say the same also in relation to Debreton's mode of clarifying the cane juice. In conclusion, we feel we are bound to add, that planters must guard themselves against any system that includes secret clarifying agents, and be wary of making use of sugar of lead or sulphate of zinc, which are poisons endangering the public health, and not being necessary to produce the best quality of sugar, there can be no apology for their use.

"During the past season there were several attempts to introduce new machinery. Among them were several vacuum pans, one put up on Mr. Maunsel White's plantation, in Plaquemine, but which was not ready in time. These delays have endangered a great part of his crop. Another vacuum pan on Judge Butler's plantation at Grand Caillou, has given sugar of a very large grain; but the owner did not use it for his whole crop, and made only a few hogsheads of sugar with it, for reasons which we are unable to assign. At Thomas

A. Morgan's of Plaquemine (the first planter who ever boiled syrup by vacuum pans in this State), trials have been made to concentrate the cane juice up to 25 degrees by steam. He has set up three open steam kettles and a new vacuum pan for that purpose, at an expense of about $8,000, and we regret to say that a planter of such enterprise did not succeed in his expectation.

"Several open steam pans of Mape's construction, and from Stillman's works, have been used. These pans work well, but it remains difficult to decide if they present any advantage over the common worms, which are cheaper and easier to be kept in good order.

"The honorable Judge P. A. Rost, in his oration delivered on the 13th of May last, mentioned a new apparatus embracing all that had been found valuable in the others, then in course of construction by Stillman & Co., of the Novelty Iron Works, New York, for Mr. Valcour Aime, of St James. We regret to say that the trial of this enterprising gentleman, and of which so great a profit was expected for our country, has been unsuccessful. Let us hope that with the alteration which he contemplates at present, he will succeed in taking in his next crop. We are informed that he has expended this year $22,000 for an apparatus to make eighteen hogsheads a day, and that the contract for the new alterations proposed, amounts to $8,000. Rarely do we find a planter ready to go into such expensive trials for the welfare of the community; and we do not hesitate to give him all the encouragement on behalf of our Association, but at the same time let this example remain as a striking warning to our planters. Is it to their interest to make such trials, always costly, often ruinous! We do not recommend such pursuit. Here is the case of a planter known in the entire State for his practical knowledge, and who may be ranked among the most talented men of our community, expending $30,000, and being yet uncertain of the result. Is it prudent to follow the same course—shall we run the chance of losing large advances, besides a part of our crop? In our opinion the planters are to be governed by other rules; they, we believe, must adopt what has already been tried, and nothing but what has been proved unquestionably successful.

"We congratulate our country on the spirit of enterprise which prevails. The competition evinced in the improvement of the manufacture of sugar, shows energetic feelings among our planters; and if on one hand we recommend prudence, let us also encourage a spirit which will turn to the benefit of the community, and will prove more and more economical and profitable to the great staple of Louisiana."

The committee on the fine arts made the following awards, which for the sake of stimulating like efforts in the future, are deserving of enumeration:

To James Maguire, of New Orleans, for the most perfect specimens of Daguerreotype portraits, the first premium.

To J. V. Childs, of New Orleans, for specimens of copper-plate, the first premium.

To J. Manouvrier and Perez Snell, of New Orleans, for the finest specimens of lithographic engravings, a first premium.

To Mr. La Tourette, for the finest specimens of maps, particularly for the most recent and perfect map of Louisiana, a first premium.

Miss Mary J. A. Matthews, for the finest specimen of worsted work, representing bouquets of flowers, the first premium.

Mrs. Elmira Stevens, for a basket of the same description of work, second premium.

Mrs. Livingston, of New Orleans, for needle-work representing two embroidered pictures of water spaniels in the act of fetching, and one wrought in the same manner, of Napoleon crossing the Alps, were admired by all, and obtained for the fair artist premiums for each.

For mechanical inventions the following awards were made:

The committee award to B. M. Norman, New Orleans, for one Royal Ledger Russia, one Royal Journal, three half cap bound, manufactured by him, the first premium.

Also, for specimens of sealing-wax, of wafers, ink, and letter-press, etc., first premium.

To P. Snell, New Orleans, for a convex and concave spherical rest, of his own invention, for turning convex or concave spheres, either of wood, glass, metal or precious stones, a first premium.

To A. M. Reeder, Baton Rouge, for three fine saddles of great durability and workmanship, tastefully made, and possessing every quality of the finest saddles, the first premium.

To Thomas Durall, aged 14 years, for a bridle, a certificate.

Dr. Clagget, Baton Rouge, fine specimens of full sets of teeth, set in porcelain and in gold.

Dr. O. Whiting, Baton Rouge, same.

Dr. J. T. Beauregard, remarkable fine specimens of the various mechanical operations on the teeth, etc., etc.

To Dr. James Pearson, dentist, No. 8, Baronne st., near Canal st., New Orleans, for a complete set of porcelain teeth, with gums representing the natural color, manufactured by him, the first premium.

Also for specimens of forceps, made after patterns furnished by him, the first premium.

Stock, and dies and screw taps, made by P. Snell, a premium.

The committee on agricultural products exhibited the following table of premiums:

To Messrs. Packwood & Benjamin, for loaf sugar, Mr. Rillieux's patent process, first premium.

To Mr. Packwood, for the best rough sugar, also made by Rillieux's patent process, first premium.

To Verloin Degruy, they also award a premium, and taking the cheapness and simplicity of Mr. Degruy's process by Mr. Rillieux's vacuum pan into consideration, are of opinion that it equals Mr. Packwood's.

Mr. Combs also presented a sample of fine sugar, raised on the highlands, and made by the ordinary process.

D. F. Miller, Concordia parish, and Mr. Abbey, Yazoo city, both presented samples of Mastodon cotton, equal in quality. Mr. Miller being of the State, received the first premium.

Henry Lawrence, Esq., presented a sample of Sea Island cotton, superior to any ever exhibited before this Association, and received a certificate to that effect; but in consequence of the small quantity raised, and its having been picked from the seed by hand, the com-

mittee feel bound to award the first premium to J. H. I. Unberhagen, he presenting two bales of very superior quality ginned on the ordinary process.

To James Carpenter, of East Feliciana, for a specimen of Latakiah leaf tobacco, a very superior article, was awarded a premium; and a specimen of Havana leaf, grown by Mr. Unberhagen, near Bayou Sara, was favorably noticed by the committee, it being pronounced superior to that of Mr. Carpenter in color; and the opinion being expressed that if the same care had been observed in handling it, that it would have been equal in every other respect. To Mr. Unberhagen second premium. Accompanying each of these specimens were samples of cigars made from the leaf, which were *puffed* by lovers of the weed with great gusto.

There is published in the proceedings of the Fair, a letter received from Mr. R. Abbey on the subject of Mastodon cotton, which is now attracting so much attention among us. We make a short extract from the letter, as our space at present will admit of no more:

"The high character which this cotton has obtained in the short time it has been in the country, will perhaps be regarded as a sufficient apology for me as its original proprietor to invite the attention of your Association, and thus introduce to the public a very few brief facts in relation to it. The name MASTODON was given to it by myself—its nativity I have never learned. All I know in relation to its origin is, that a traveler in the interior of Mexico, about five years since, purchased four seed at a high price and brought them to this country. It has been grown now four years by myself. Last year, about twenty or thirty other persons cultivated small quantities in Mississippi and Louisiana.

"I have endeavored, as far as practicable, to obtain the views and opinions of others, who have cultivated the Mastodon, to compare with my own experience; and I have the satisfaction to state, as the best information I am able to concentrate, that the product of the Mastodon, on either the river bottoms or uplands, is greater than that of the common Mexican cotton of the country, and that in many respects it is a much more certain crop.

"The picking of the Mastodon is somewhat better than our common cotton, the bolls being about double the size. It hangs in the boll slightly tighter than our other cotton, which prevents it from falling out in the field, but still only so tight as to make but, perhaps, a barely perceptible difference in the picking. It gins a little harder than the common cotton. Upon the whole, the Mastodon is the easiest to raise and prepare for market, pound for pound.

"In regard to the mode of cultivating the Mastodon, I will observe, that I make no difference between it and the common cotton. I give it the same distance and the same cultivation. The gin for the Mastodon should have wider grates than common, in consequence of its great length and staple. Or if the common gin be used, it should be run slow, or it will cut the fibres. The Mastodon cannot, I think, be ginned on the roller gin, as some purchasers and cotton brokers have suggested, in consequence of its strong adherence to the seed.

"Upon the subject of the value and quality of the Mastodon cot-

ton in market, it would not become me to offer any views of my own, for the opinion of others, much better qualified to judge, are within your reach; I will barely observe, that the general length of the staple is about two inches, and it is regarded in New Orleans as being of a remarkable strength and firmness. My own present crop is the first and only crop of Mastodon ever raised in the United States; a part of this was sold a few weeks since in New Orleans by Messrs. Buckner & Stanton, at 16 cents round. Other little parcels have been sold at various prices, ranging as low as 12½ cents. These cottons, so far as I know or am able to learn, were all handled in the common rough manner, without any special pains taken. My own, I can aver, was both picked and ginned very roughly. It is believed, moreover, that in consequence of the sudden and unexpected introduction of small lots of long staple into the New Orleans market, where short staple alone has been hitherto looked for and purchased, the Mastodon has not, as yet, been able to assume a fair position in the market and command the price it was really entitled to. Next year, it is presumed, it will establish for itself a market in New Orleans."

Art. IX.—COMMERCIAL JURISPRUDENCE.

LEGAL IMPORT OF A BILL OF LADING IN THE HANDS OF A HOLDER OF A BILL OF EXCHANGE.

Commercial Court of Louisiana.—Jacob Little & Co. *v.* R. D. Blossman and F. De Tastet.

A SPECIAL jury of merchants was impanneled in the city of New Orleans within the past month, for the trial of this important and intricate case. The facts as they came out in evidence, and the arguments of counsel, were furnished us in the columns of the New Orleans Bulletin.

It appears that Firmin de Tastet & Co., merchants of London, sent orders to R. D. Blossman, of this city, in the fall of 1843, to purchase for their account twenty-five hundred bales of cotton, and directing the latter to forward to them the shipping documents, upon the receipt of which the bills of exchange would be duly honored. Mr. Blossman executed the order, drew his bills at sixty days sight, which he sold to Robb & Hoge, and at their request delivered to them the bills of lading, which were made to "order." Nothing appears to have been said at the time of the negotiation with Robb & Hoge, as to the motives of the parties in giving the bills of lading to the purchasers of the bills of exchange. Robb & Hoge transmitted to New York, for sale, the bills of exchange, accompanied by the bills of lading; and Jacob Little & Co. purchased the bills, and transmitted them to the Barings, at London, for collection.

On the presentation of the bills of exchange to the drawees, F. de Tastet & Co., they accepted the bills, and asked the Barings for the bills of lading. This was refused, and the Barings declared that

they would hold the bills of lading as security for the *payment* of the bills of exchange, until the maturity of the latter; offering, however, to allow De Tastet & Co. to discount their acceptances at the current market rate. De Tastet refused these terms; struck off their names from the acceptances; returned the bills of exchange to the Barings, with the acceptance canceled, and the bills were dishonored, and notice forwarded to Blossman, the drawer. The Barings kept the cotton on hand till the fall of 1845, when it was sold for a sum of about $25,000 less than the amount of the bills. In the mean time the present suit had been instituted against Blossman, as drawer of the bills of exchange, and a verdict claimed against him for $25,000, being the balance due on the bills, after crediting the amount of the sales of the cotton.

On these facts the following question arose:—When a bill of lading accompanies a bill of exchange, payable at any number of days after sight, is the bill of lading a security to the holder of the bill of exchange, *only* that it shall be accepted; or is it a security *both* for acceptance and payment?

The plaintiffs contended that the bill of lading was in the place of an indorsement: that it was a security for payment as well as for acceptance: that being attached to the bill of exchange, no one could detach it: that whoever rightfully held the bill of exchange, had a right to hold on to the bill of lading, and that if De Tastet & Co. wanted the bill of lading immediately, they could only get it by obtaining the bill of exchange, that is, by cashing the latter.

For the defense it was contended, that the bill of exchange and bill of lading formed together one contract, the terms of which were evident on their very face: that these documents proved to any person buying the bills, that a credit had been given for the merchandise mentioned in the bill of lading, because if no credit had been intended the bills of exchange would have been drawn at sight, and not at sixty days after sight: that the merchandise being bought on credit must be delivered *before* payment: that to call on the party for *immediate* payment was a change of his contract which could not be imposed on him against his consent: that whenever a credit is given, the party entitled to it cannot be deprived of it unless a change in his circumstances put the other party in imminent danger of losing his property: that if De Tastet & Co. had become insolvent, or if their credit had been impaired, the Barings might, as a measure of prudence, hold on to the bills of lading as their security: but then they must be considered as waiving acceptance; that it was against all reason and mercantile usage to call on a house to give its acceptances for goods that were not delivered to them: that if a house under such circumstances were to accede to such a demand, the holder of the bills, if dishonest, might sell the property and acceptances both, and that it could never be the law or understanding of parties that one mercantile house should throw itself so completely into the power of another.

The case was argued by Mr. Jacob Barker for the plaintiff, and Messrs. Benjamin and Micou for defendants. The verdict was for defendants.

SOUTHERN AND WESTERN COMMERCE, STATISTICS, AGRICULTURE, &c.

1.—NEW ORLEANS CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

We publish below a list of the Officers for the present year, of the New Orleans Chamber of Commerce, together with the Tariff of Charges, &c., agreed upon and adopted by the Chamber several years ago, which, notwithstanding different attempts at change in some particulars, remains yet in full effect.

Officers.

S. J. Peters, President. W. L. Hodge, Second Vice-President.
Jas. Dick, First Vice-President. Chas. Briggs, Secretary and Treasurer.

Committee of Appeals.

W. H. Avery, J. H. Eimer,
H. F. McKenna, W. C. Mylne,
W. Muir, W. Bogart.

General Tariff of Commissions, applicable to Foreign, Northern, and Western business.

On sales of sugar, molasses, cotton, tobacco and lead,.....per cent.	2½
All other produce or merchandise,.....	5
Guaranty of do., if not exceeding 6 months,.....	2½
And for each month additional over 6 months, ...	½
Purchase and shipment of merchandise or produce,.....	2½
Sales and purchase of stocks or bullion,.....	1
Collecting and remitting dividends,.....	1
If with guaranty of bills,.....	2½
Selling vessels or steamboats,.....	2½
Purchasing " "	5
Procuring freights,.....	5
Collecting freights,.....	2½
On outfits and disbursements, ...	2½
Effecting marine insurance where the premium does not exceed 10 per cent. on the amount insured,.....	½
If the premium exceeds 10 per cent., then on the amount of premium,.....	5
Adjusting and collecting insurance, or other claims without litigation,.....	2½
With litigation, ...	5
Purchasing and remitting drafts, or receiving and paying money on which no other commission has been charged, ...	1
If the bills remitted are guarantied, ...	2½
If bills and notes remitted for collection are protested and returned, the same commission to be charged, say	1
Landing, re-shipping and custody of merchandise or produce from vessels in distress,.....	2
Do. do. bullion or specie,.....	
On general average,.....	5½

Consignments of merchandise withdrawn to pay full commissions on amount of advances and responsibilities, and half commissions on the invoice value of the goods withdrawn.

The above rates to be exclusive of brokerage and other charges actually incurred.

The following rates to be specially applicable to European and other Foreign business, anything in the preceding General Tariff to the contrary notwithstanding.

On remitting proceeds of sales in bills without guaranty,.....per cent.	1½
With guaranty, ...	2
Drawing, endorsing, or negotiating bills in payment for produce; if on Europe,	2½
Do. do. do. on Atlantic States,.....	1
Receiving, entering and re-shipping goods to a foreign port, on amount of invoice,.....	1
And on advances and responsibilities, in addition,.....	2½

The following rates, in like manner, to be specially applicable to Western and Local business.

Accepting drafts or indorsing notes, without funds, produce, or bills of lading in hand,..... 2
Cash advances, in all cases, even with produce or bills of lading,..... 2½
For shipping to another market produce or merchandise upon which advances have been made,..... 2½
Effecting insurance (except when the commission for buying or selling has been charged) on the amount insured,..... ½
If the premium exceeds 10 per cent., then on the amount of premium,..... 5
Negotiating drafts or notes as drawer or indorser,..... 2½
Collecting steamboat freights,..... 5
Entering and bonding goods for the interior, on amount of duties and charges, 2½
Besides the regular charge per package for forwarding.

AGENCY FOR STEAMBOATS.

Under 120 tons,	per trip,	$30 00
Above 120 tons to 200 tons,		40 00
" 200 " to 300 "		50 00
" 300 " to 400 "		60 00
" 400 " to 500 "		70 00

Besides charges actually incurred, and the regular commission for particular services, such as collecting freight, paying disbursements, &c.

Loss by fire (unless insurance has been ordered), of robbers, theft, and all unavoidable accidents, if the usual care has been taken to secure the property, to be borne by the owners of the goods.

RATES OF RECEIVING AND FORWARDING GOODS EXCLUSIVE OF CHARGES ACTUALLY INCURRED.

Sugar,	per hhd.	$1 00
Molasses,	"	1 00
Tobacco,	"	1 00
" manufactured, kegs or boxes,		20
Cotton, on the value, 2½ per cent., or per bale,		1 00
Liquids,	per pipe	1 00
"	per hhd.	75
"	per half pipe	50
"	per qr. pipe	25
Merchandise, cases, boxes and trunks,		25 to 50
"	per bbl.	25
Provisions,	per hhd.	37½
"	per bbl.	25
Flour,	per bbl.	10
Lard,	per keg	5
Earthenware,	per crate or cask	50
Hardware	per box or cask	25 to 50
Nails,	per keg	5
Gunpowder,	per keg	50
Coffee,	per bag	20
Salt, spices, &c.,	per bag	12½
Iron,	per 2,000 lbs.	1 00
Castings,	per 2,000 lbs.	1 50
Lead,	per pig	3
Soap, raisins, candles, &c.,	per box	5
Carriages,	each	5 00
Gigs,	each	3 00

Other articles in proportion.

RATES OF STORAGE—PER MONTH.

Cotton, moss, &c.,	per bale	20
Tobacco,	per hhd.	50
Bacon,	per hhd.	25
Pork and Whiskey,	per bbl.	10
Flour,	per bbl.	6
Lard,	per keg	5
Hides,	each	3
Peltries,	per bale	25

Iron and Lead,	per pig	2
Bar Iron,	per ton	1 00
Crockery,	per cask or crate	50
Hardware,	per cask	25 to 50
Nails,	per keg	5
Dry-goods, on deposit,	per package	25 to 50
Coffee, salt, spices, &c.,	per bag	6¼
Liquids,	per pipe or hhd.	50
"	per half pipe	37½
"	per qr. pipe	12½
Claret wine,	per cask	25
Wine, soap, candles, &c.,	per box	3
Bagging,	per piece	6¼
Bale rope,	per coil	6¼
Sugar,	per hhd.	37½

Dry-goods pay storage for the whole time they may be on hand, on the gross value, 1 per cent.

FREIGHTS.

When vessels are chartered, or goods shipped by the ton, and no special agreement respecting the proportion of tonnage which each particular article shall be computed at, the following regulation shall be the standard:

That the articles, the bulk of which shall compose a ton, to equal a ton of heavy materials, shall in weight be as follows:

Coffee,	in casks	1568 lbs.;	in bags	1830 lbs.	
Cocoa,	"	1120 "	"	1300	"
Pimento,	"	850 "	"	1100	"
Flour,	8 bbls. of 196 lbs.				
Beef, pork, tallow, pickled fish, and naval stores,	6 bbls.				
Pig and bar iron, lead and other metals or ore, heavy dye-woods, sugar, rice, honey or other heavy articles,	gross 2240 lbs.				
Ship bread,	in casks 672, bags 784, bulk 896 lbs.				
Wines, brandy, spirits, and liquids generally, reckoning the full capacity of the casks, wine measure,	200 gallons.				
Grain, peas, and beans, in casks,	22 bushels.				
" " " in bulk,	36 "				
Salt, European,	36 "				
" West India,	31 "				
Stone, coal,	28 "				
Timber, plank, furs, peltry in bales or boxes, cotton, wool, or other measurement goods, cubic feet,	40				
Dry hides,	1120 lbs.				

When molasses is shipped by the hogshead, without any special agreement, it shall be taken at 110 gallons, estimated on the full capacity of the cask.

2.—PROSPERITY OF SECOND MUNICIPALITY OF NEW ORLEANS.

We feel extremely obliged to Recorder Baldwin for the following interesting information in relation to the growth and prosperity of the Second Municipality: During the year ending December 31, 1845, there have been erected within the limits of the Municipality 295 buildings—146 of which are of wood, the rest being brick and granite—at a cost of $979,300. The total loss by fire, during the same period, has been in buildings, $26,550; and in furniture and in stock, $14,370—being a less sum than that of any former year since the Municipality has been established.

3.—BANKS OF NEW ORLEANS.

The condition of the Banks of New Orleans on the first of January, according to the statement of the Board of Commerce, was as follows:

LIABILITIES.		ASSETS.	
Circulation,	$4,760,060 50	Specie,	$6,212,534 82
Deposits,	7,202,450 40	Loans on deposits,	5,268,694 96
Due other banks,	812,873 50	Due by other banks,	2,828,632 26
Other liabilities,	58,632 21	Other assets,	330,726 08
Total,	$12,834,016 61	Total,	$14,640,588 02

4.—PILOTAGE.—CHARLESTON BAR.

The following rates and regulations have been established by authority:

For 6 feet water or under, -	$ 9	For 13½ feet water or under, -	$28
" 7 " " "	10	" 14 " " "	36
" 8 " " "	11	" 14½ " " "	31
" 9 " " "	12	" 15 " " "	38
" 10 " " "	16	" 15½ " " "	40
" 11 " " "	18	" 16 " " "	50
" 12 " " "	23	" 16½ " " "	60
" 12½ " " "	25	" 17 " " "	70
" 13 " " "	26		

Steamboats half the above rates. For taking a vessel round to Ashley river, $8, with steamboat, $5. When a pilot remains on board an outward-bound vessel, at request of the master, to receive $4 per day.

5.—CENTRAL RAILROAD, GEORGIA.

In our last we published an article, drawn up with some care, on the subject of a railroad connection between the West and the South. As the Central Georgia railroad will constitute a link in the chain, it will be interesting to know the present condition and prospects of the Company which has charge of it. We have it furnished us within the past few weeks on high authority.

Date.	No. of pas'g'rs.	Passage money.	Freight and U. S. Mail.	Total earnings.	Total same period last year.
1844. December	1 206	4 576 28	30 310 46	34,886 74	31,253 63
1845. January,	1,345	4,755 05	26,660 16	31,415 21	29,758 47
February,	1,041	4,649 75	32,137 65	36,787 40	25,704 62
March,	1,138	5,351 13	33,897 46	39,248 59	25,867 86
April,	1,179	4,891 50	27,795 44	32.686 94	17,676 87
May,	1.402	5,673 00	27,639 23	33,312 23	20,092 59
June,	1,144	4,379 00	9.523 49	13,902 49	10,808 00
July,	1,153	4,707 98	18 821 10	23,529 08	12,103 64
August,	787	3,953 86	12,985,37	16,939 23	18,181 36
September,	1,132	4,770 95	25,409 58	30,108 53	35,410 90
October,	1,624	6.920 87	35,219 14	42,040 01	50,962 72
November,	1,480	5,580 74	27,941 56	33,522 30	50,603 31
Total,	1,4631	60,110 11	308,340 64	368,378 75	328,423 97

The earnings for 1845 exceed those for 1834 $40,026 74, being an increase of twelve and a half per cent. The total number of bales of cotton transported the last year was 114,641 bales, and for the year previous, 77,437, being an increase of 37,204 bales, or about fifty per cent.

The net earnings of the road, during the past year, were as annexed:

Total receipts for the year ending November 30, 1845	$368,450 75
Total expenses of maintaining and working road	186,886 39
Total net earnings, 1845	$181,564 36

DEBT OF THE COMPANY.

Circulation	$42,791 00
Road tickets	7,735 15
Deposits	25,048 39
Due to other banks	106 29
Unclaimed dividends	4,342 60
Bills payable	135,903 20
Railroad Bonds	440,097 00
Certificates to banks	13,311 00
Total, November 30, 1845	$669,334 63
Resources, independent of railroad and appurtenances,	239,223 71
Liabilities, over and above assets, November 30, 1845	$430,110 92

After allowing for all bad debts, and depreciation of real estate and banking houses, it is estimated that the assets of the company will yield at least $200,000.

6.—MISSISSIPPI AND MICHIGAN RAILROAD.

The Chicago, Ill., Daily Journal of the 4th ult., contains the proceedings of a numerous meeting of the citizens of Winnebago county at Rockford, where the importance of immediate action on the project of the "Mississippi and Michigan Railroad" was resolved upon, and active measure taken to secure a railroad from Galena to Chicago. A convention was recommended to be held during the present month to concert measures to bring the project to a consummation.

7.—UNITED STATES BRANCH MINT.

DAHLONEGA, GA., JAN. 7, 1846.

Please publish, for general information, the subjoined statement of the coinage at this Mint during the year 1845:

January	$19,169 50
February	27,575 00
March	40,700 00
April	46,105 00
May	43,517 50
June	49 885 00
July	45,992 50
August	48,957 50
September	45,445 00
October	38,610 00
November	36,295 00
December	59,535 00
Amounting to	$501,787 00

The coinage in 1844 was $488,600, from which it appears that there was an increase last year, over 1844, of $103,195.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,
JAMES F. COOPER, *Supt.*

FOREIGN COMMERCE.

1.—COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE report of Secretary Walker has been mentioned as one of the ablest which has ever emanated from the Treasury Department. We have, in the following statements, an abridgment of the paper, for which we are indebted to the "Washington Constitution." Our readers will find in it full matter for deliberate study.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1845.

Imports.

Specie and bullion	$ 4,070,242
Foreign goods free of duty	18 077,598
" " paying ad valorem duties	60,191,862
" " paying specific duties	34,914,862
	$117,254,564

Exports.

Specie and bullion	$7,762.049
Foreign goods free of duty	2,413,050
" " paying ad valorem duties	2,107,292
" " paying specific duties	3,064,439
Total re-exported	$15,346,830
Domestic produce exported	98,453,330
Gold and silver coin	844,446
	$114,644,606
Total of imports and exports	231,899,170

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF SPECIE.

The imports and exports of specie during the year were—

Imports	$4,070,242
Exports	8,606,495
Excess of exports	$4,536 253

VESSELS EMPLOYED.

The amount of the above imports and exports, which were carried in American and foreign vessels, is as follows:

Foreign goods imported in American vessels	$102,438,481
" " re-exported in " "	11,459,319
Domestic produce exported in " "	75,483,123
Total	$189,380,923
Foreign goods imported in foreign vessels	$14,816,083
" " re-exported in " "	3,887,511
Domestic produce exported in " "	23,816,653
Total	$42,520,247

TONNAGE AND CREWS.

The number and tonnage of vessels, with their crews, entering and clearing from the United States, were as follows:

	No.	Tonnage.	Men.	Boys.
American vessels entered	8,133	2,035,486	99,020	2,562
" " cleared	8,197	2,053,977	100,794	2,462
Total American	16,330	4,089,463	199,814	5,024
Foreign vessels entered	5,590	910,563	55,315	706
" " cleared	5,583	930,275	54,657	720
Total foreign	11,173	1,840,838	109,972	1,420

AMERICAN TONNAGE.

Registered permanent	882,538.48
" temporary	212,633.91
Total registered	1,095,172.44
Enrolled and licensed—permanent	1,264.060.44
" " temporary	18,283,62
Total enrolled and licensed	1,282,344.11
Licensed under 20 tons—permanent	32,320.45
" " temporary	7,165.01
Total licensed under 20 tons	39,485.46
Aggregate of the above tonnage	2,417,002.06
The registered and enrolled tonnage in the whale fishery is	190,695.65
Do. steamboat tonnage	6,491.51
The proportion of enrolled and licensed tonnage employed in the coasting trade is	1,190,898.27
Do. in the cod fishery	69,825.66
Do. in the mackerel fishery	21,413.05
Total	1,282,344.11
The proportion of the enrolled and licensed tonnage employed in the coasting trade (as above), which consists of steamboats, is	319,527.07
The number of vessels built in the United States during the year ending June 30, 1845, is	1,038.00
And their tonnage is	146,018.02

TABLE OF EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC PRODUCE IN THE SEVERAL STATES, FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1845.

STATES.	VALUE OF EXPORTS.						VALUE OF IMPORTS.		
	DOMESTIC PRODUCE.			FOREIGN PRODUCE.		Total of domestic and foreign produce.			
	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	Total.	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.		In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	Total.
Maine,	$ 1,134 306	$ 133 334	$ 1,167 640	$ 80,415	$ 7,050	$ 1,255 105	$ 694,748	$ 160,897	$ 855,645
New Hampshire,	1,469	905	2,374	....	10	2,384	18,919	3,770	22,689
Vermont,	213,976	....	213,976	328,631	....	542,607	81,997	....	81,997
Massachusetts,	6,918,733	837,663	7,756,396	1,871,110	723,524	10,351,030	18,150,295	4,630,729	22,781,024
Rhode Island,	190,141	....	190,141	891	....	191,632	273,380	950	274,330
Connecticut,	913,775	47,035	960,810	8,245	....	969 055	358,421	13,654	372,075
New York,	20,837,757	5,092,147	25,929,904	7,907,018	2,338,376	36,175,298	63,460,879	7,448,206	70,909,085
New Jersey,	....	....	....	....	....	....	177	652	829
Pennsylvania,	2,879,169	250,509	3,129,678	392,545	52,140	3,594,363	7,500,165	659,062	8,159,227
Delaware,	135,048	3,147	138,195	....	....	138,195	2,274	....	2,274
Maryland,	3,884,506	1,061,731	4 946,237	221,324	54,416	5,221,977	3 468,217	273,587	3,741,804
District of Columbia,	418,902	90,527	509 429	....	735	510,164	61,586	8,943	70,529
Virginia,	1,903 018	198,027	2,101,045	3,536	....	2,104,581	261 501	6,157	267 658
North Carolina,	339 763	40,197	379,960	....	....	379,960	221,037	9 433	230 470
South Carolina,	6,699,848	2 784,922	8,884,770	285	5,593	8 890,648	940,815	202,343	1,143,158
Georgia,	2 723,983	1,833,452	4,551,435	....	....	4,557,435	150 312	55,989	206,301
Alabama,	6,615,568	3 899,706	10,515,274	....	22,954	10,538,228	185,177	288,314	473,491
Louisiana,	18,267,813	7,573,498	25,841,311	642,365	673,789	27,157,465	6,351,024	1,003,373	7 354,397
Mississippi,	....	....	....	....	....	....	738	....	738
Tennessee,	....	....	....	....	....	....	6,929	....	6,929
Missouri,	....	....	....	....	....	....	54,429	....	54,429
Ohio,	64,079	257,035	321,114	....	....	321,114	71,730	6,466	78 196
Kentucky,	....	....	....	....	....	....	17,469	....	17,469
Michigan,	251,220	....	251,220	....	....	251,220	41,952	....	41 952
Florida,	1,190,049	312,818	1,502,867	2,954	8,924	1,514 745	64,310	43,558	107,868
Total,	75,483,123	23,816 653	99,299,776	11 459,319	3,887,511	114,646,606	102,438,481	14,816,083	117,254,564

THE ISLAND OF CUBA.

TARIFF OF DUTIES TO BE ENFORCED AFTER MARCH 1, 1846.

	Valuation.	Rate of Duty. per cent.
Ale, cask	arroba	$1 50	33½
Ale, bottles	dozen	3 —	33½
Apples	bbl.	3 —	27½
Barrels, empty	each	— 50	27½
Beef	bbl	9 —	33½
Beef, jerked	arroba	1 75	27½
Beef, smoked	qtl.	7 —	33½
Beans	arroba	— 85	33½
Beer, cask	arroba	1 50	33½
Beer, bottles	dozen	3 —	33½
Biscuit	box, 45lb.	— 75	33½
Boards, white and yellow pine	M. ft.	20 —	27½
Bricks	M.	12 —	33½
Butter	qtl.	14 —	27½
Candles, tallow	qtl.	12 —	33½
Candles, sperm	qtl.	32 —	27½
Cheese, American	qtl.	10 —	27½
Coal	ton	3 75	33½
Cocoa, Caraccas	qtl.	16 —	27½
Cocoa, all other	qtl.	6 —	27½
Cod Fish	qtl.	3 50	27½
Cordage, tarred	qtl.	12 —	33½
Cordage, Manilla	qtl.	7 50	33½
Cotton	qtl.	10 —	27½
Cider, bottles	doz.	3 —	33½
Flour, bbl. fixed duty		— —	$0 50
Hams	qtl.	10 —	33½
Hay	qtl.	— 50	27½
Herring	bxs. of 100 fish	— 62	33½
Hogsheads, casks	each	2 —	27½
Hoops	M.	30 —	27½
Horses, geldings	each	150 —	33½
Lard	qtl.	12 —	33½
Mackerel	bbl.	3 —	27½

	Valuation.	Rate of Duty. per cent.
Nails, copper	qtl.	25 —	27½
Nails, iron	qtl.	7 —	27½
Oars	100 ft.	6 25	27½
Oil, sperm and whale	qtl.	10 —	27½
Onions	qtl.	1 66	33½
Paper, letter	ream	2 50	33½
Paper, wrapping	ream	— 50	33½
Pork	bbl.	14 —	33½
Pork, sides	qtl.	9 —	27½
Potatoes	bbl.	2 50	27½
Rice	qtl.	6 —	33½
Scantling	M. ft.	18 —	27½
Shingles	M.	3 75	27½
Shooks, sugar-box	each	— 75	27½
Shooks, hhd.	each	1 —	27½
Soap, bar	qtl.	8 —	33½
Staves	M.	25 —	27½
Tallow	qtl.	7 50	27½
Tar	bbl.	3 —	27½
Tongues, smoked	qtl.	7 —	27½

Export Duties.

Coffee	qtl.	$1,20
Rum	pipes	Free.
Molasses	hhds.	Free.
Honey	hhds.	$1 87
Sugar	box	87
Segars	M.	50
Tobacco	qtl.	1 50

This Tariff is to take effect on the 1st of March next, and on the same date the tonnage duty will be re-imposed upon vessels loading Molasses.

In calculating the duty on imports 1 per cent. on the amount of duty must be added, called *balanza*.

4.—CUSTOM-HOUSE REGULATIONS—CUBA.

Under the former tariff of duties the following regulations were enforced at the custom house, and we have heard of no changes since:

Extract of Custom-House Regulations.—Every shipmaster is bound to have on his arrival, ready for delivery to the boarding officers of the revenue, a manifest, containing a detailed statement of his cargo and ship stores, and in the act of handing it over, has to write thereon the oath that he has no other cargo on board, and the hour when he delivers it, taking care that it be countersigned by the boarding officers. Within twelve hours, which begin to count from the moment he delivers such manifest until seven o'clock in the evening, and again from six o'clock in the morning until the moment the said twelve hours shall elapse, he can make any alteration by *presenting a separate note*, in which he specifies the errors he may have committed in the manifest. After the expiration of these twelve hours, no alteration will be permitted; *goods not manifest*, will be confiscated without remedy, and if their value should not exceed one thousand dollars, the master of the vessel will be liable to pay a penalty of double the amount of such non-manifested goods; if they exceed that sum, and belong to the master or come consigned to him, his vessel, freight, and other emoluments will be forfeited to the revenue; *goods over manifested* will pay duties as if they were on board; *goods not manifested but claimed in time by a consignee*, will be delivered up to the latter, but the master in this case will be subject to a fine equal in amount to that of such goods; *gold and silver* not manifested by either master or consignee, are liable to a duty of 4 per cent.

Goods falling short of the quantity manifested, when landed, and not being included in any invoice of consignee, will render the master liable to a penalty of two hundred dollars for each package so falling short. Every master must present himself within twenty-four hours after his arrival, at the custom house, in order to swear to his manifest; in neglect of which he is liable to a fine of one thousand dollars. Every consignee is obliged to present a detailed note of goods within forty-eight hours after the arrival of a vessel; if not, such goods are liable to 2 per cent. extra duty. The same is the case if such notes do not contain a statement of the number of pieces, contents, quantity, weight, and measure. Every vessel is required to bring a bill of health certified by the Spanish Consul at the port of her departure, or that nearest to it; otherwise they are placed in quarantine.

5.—SPANISH COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Coins.—1 dollar = 8 rials. 1 Spanish doubloon = 17 dollars. 1 South American do. = 16 dollars.

Weights.—1 ql = 100lbs. or 4 arrobas of 25lbs., 100lbs. Spanish = 101¼ English, or 46 kilogrammes.

Measures.—108 vrs = 100 yards. 140 vrs = 100 French ells or aunes. 81 vrs = 100 Brab. ells. 108 vrs = 160 Ham. ells. 1 fanega = 3 bushels nearly, or 200lbs. Span. 1 arroba of wine or spirits = 4 1-0th Eng. I wine gallon nearly.

6.—COMMERCE OF CUBA.

The whole value of the products of Spain imported into Cuba during 1844, was $5,726,271.

The value of the exports for the whole island was as follows: In 1840, $25,941,783; 1841, $26,774,614; 1842, $26,684,701; 1843, $25,029,792; 1844, $25,426,591.

The value of the imports was, in 1840, $24,700,189; 1841, $25,081,498; 1842, $24,637,527; 1843, $23,422,096; 1844, $25,056,231.

The exports of sugar for 1843 were 889,103 boxes, which sold for $12,447,453; do. for 1844 were 1,009,565 boxes, which sold for $14,133,926.

7.—COMMERCE OF HAVANA.

Exports from the Port of Havana, from January 1st to the 31st December, 1845.

Destination.	Sugar. boxes.	Coffee. arrobas.	Molasses hhds.	Honey. tierces.	Wax. arrobas.	Rum. pipes.	Segars. M.	Tobacco. pounds.
Spain	91,717	59,965	45½	77	8,992	1,047½	9,098	730,176
United States	26,661	7,019	17,302½	309½	107	140	37,486	327,859
England	10,315	1,205	....	....	28	10	22,204	131,615
Cowes	65,521	695	104	64	4	79	1,659	7,870
Baltic	11,919	....	....	....	....	....	223	....
Hamburg & Bremen	22,794	33,592	16	268½	....	312	13,863	199,506
Holland	6,715	....	....	126½	....	....	2,104	....
Belgium	2,459	....	....	10	....	....	1,015	....
France	11,847	37,877	....	....	....	2	17,323	90,623
Trieste and Venice	5,117	5,370	....	....	....	....	10,945	....
Italy	2,246	5,617	....	....	....	1	1,100	....
Other Ports	4,030	7,712	1,833	....	21,626	906½	3,335	134,240
Total	261,341	159,052	19,301	855½	30,757	2,498	120,355	1,621,889

Comparative Statement of the Arrivals and Clearances of Vessels (other than Coastwise) at the Port of Havana, for the years 1844 and 1845.

Months.	ARRIVED.						CLEARED.					
	1844.			1845.			1844.			1845.		
	Sp.	For.	Total	Sp.	For.	Total.	Sp.	For.	Total.	Sp.	For.	Total.
January	32	106	138	57	122	179	31	89	120	43	73	116
February	52	125	177	34	74	108	31	89	120	58	90	148
March	53	135	188	57	144	201	53	128	181	49	106	155
April	48	135	183	75	86	161	54	163	217	78	131	209
May	60	128	188	61	55	116	69	127	196	55	85	140
June	26	94	120	61	57	118	37	116	153	73	58	131
July	38	49	87	41	26	67	32	92	124	46	50	96
August	38	55	93	41	41	82	35	91	96	34	41	75
September	19	53	72	22	42	64	24	47	71	18	38	56
October	59	63	122	42	38	80	34	34	68	45	49	94
November	43	98	141	46	39	85	69	75	144	49	41	90
December	54	115	169	39	76	115	36	112	148	45	41	86
Total	522	1156	1678	576	800	1376	505	1163	1638	593	803	1396

Comparative Statement of Articles registered for Exportation, at the Port of Havana, for Twelve Years.

Years.	Sugar. boxes.	Coffee. arrobas.	Molasses. hhds.	Honey. tierces.	Wax. arrobas.	Rum. pipes.	Segars. M.	Tobacco. pounds.
1834.....	292,207	915,601	39,283	1,444	22 271	2,479	116,442	540,357
1835.....	300 218	793 392	42,355	1,403	23,303	3 583	64,733	660 915
1836.....	313,978	839,956	44 778	1,340	20,489	3,009	94,564	1,293 803
1837.....	321,657	1,409,789	43 278	1,399	35,414	2,497	143,705	1,119,185
1838.....	344,493	864,490	56,451	1,173	20 251	3,976	171,413	1 528,125
1839.....	330,624	1,174 996	51,902	1,526	29,535	6,670	153,370	1,359 029
1840.....	447,578	1,272,822	47,006	2,113	24,447	8 472	137,067	1,025,262
1841.....	346,890	742 570	42,909	1,974	28,815	8,753	159,450	1,452,989
1842.....	427,947	1,081,468	37,459	2,643	29,351	6,785	130,727	1,018,990
1843.....	461 307	773,043	35,711	2,198	37,048	6,223	152,009	2,138,802
1844.....	534,582	579,248	33 812	1,963	31,759	4 966	149 583	1,286,242
1845.....	267,595	170,466	20 075	847	31,409	2.727	119,271	1 633 073

FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC STATISTICS OF TRADE, AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES, &c.

1.—VESSELS BUILT IN THE UNITED STATES.

A CORRESPONDENT at Washington, says the New Orleans Bulletin, furnishes us the following statement, copied from the annual report of the Committee on Commerce and Navigation (not yet printed), of the number and tonnage of vessels built in the United States, during the year ending 30th June, 1845:

	1845.		1844.	
	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.
Maine	140	31,105.04	96	20,200.17
New Hampshire	5	2,501.08	3	754.88
Massachusetts	115	25,961.50	43	9,584.75
Rhode Island	8	1,661.26	7	2,813.76
Connecticut	22	2,607.76	25	2,914.12
New York	230	29,342.60	181	21,518.79
New Jersey	64	4,465.06	21	1,332.84
Pennsylvania	178	15,819.17	141	13,075.68
Delaware	9	668.91	8	585.87
Maryland	66	7,257.14	55	5,417.81
District of Columbia	15	416.32	31	850.13
Virginia	14	2,056.59	10	717.30
North Carolina	14	858.71	12	587.18
South Carolina	2	102.10	7	583.59
Georgia	1	83.14	1	72.11
Florida	4	257.04	1	72.22
Alabama	1	79.70	..	....
Louisiana	14	626.62	15	668.89
Tennessee	1	141.47	2	271.21
Kentucky	26	5,681.01	35	7,165.11
Ohio	56	11,599.39	49	9,498.39
Michigan	37	2,725.65	14	2,284.86
Missouri	..	....	9	2,567.08
Total	1022	146,018.02	766	103,537.29
	766	103,537.29		
Increase in 1845	256	42,480.73		

The following table shows the number of vessels built, and their tonnage, in each year, from 1815 to 1845:

Year.	No.	Tonnage.	Year.	No.	Tonnage.
1815	1314	154,624.39	1831	711	85,962.68
1816	1403	131,668.04	1832	1055	144,539.16
1817	1073	86,393.37	1833	1188	161,626.36
1818	898	82,421.20	1834	937	118,330.37
1819	850	79,817.86	1835—9 mos.	507	46,238.52
1820	534	47,784.01	1836	890	113,627.49
1821	507	55,856.01	1837	949	122,987.22
1822	623	75,346.93	1838	898	113,135.44
1823	622	75,007.57	1839	858	120,988.34
1824	781	90,939.00	1840	872	118,207.23
1825	994	114,997.25	1841	762	118,693.71
1826	1012	126,438.35	1842	1021	129,083.64
1827	934	104,342.67	1843—9 mos.	482	63,617.77
1828	884	98,375.58	1844	766	103,537.29
1829	785	77,098.65	1845	1038	146,018.02
1830	637	58,094.24			

2.—INCREASING PROSPERITY OF BOSTON.

On taking the office of the chief magistracy of Boston, the HON. JOSIAH QUINCY gave, a few weeks ago, the following graphic sketch of the city:

"Five years ago Boston had comparatively no back country; now nine hundred miles of New England railroads centre here, and as many more, within New England, are in the process of construction. These render Boston emphatically her capital. And I know of no prouder position for a city than to be the point that concentrates the energy and wealth of such a body of industrious, intelligent, and virtuous freemen—of Americans, natives of the soil, who promote her prosperity in peace as readily as their fathers defended her in war.

"Considered in this light alone, the position of Boston is one of present power with a certainty of rapid advancement. But her connections already stretch far beyond New England. She is on the high road between Europe and the West, and that vast country has become tributary to her increase. The car that leaves our city this morning may deposit its merchandise in thirty-six hours on the shores of Lake Erie, five hundred miles from the place of its departure; from thence inland seas, navigable for vessels of the largest class, stretch away for hundreds of miles along shores fertile for agriculture or rich in minerals. Canals already connect these lakes with the Valley of the Mississippi and with the navigable waters of her tributaries, which, extending twenty thousand miles, communicate with forty thousand miles of shores unrivaled in fertility. But more rapid modes of communication will this year be opened. The railroad from Cincinnati to Sandusky, built by the aid of the citizens of Boston, will bring the Ohio within a journey of three days—enabling the traveler to reach Boston from Cincinnati in twelve hours less time than he can Baltimore, although the latter place is three hundred miles the nearest.

"But these are but a small part of the railways that are to increase the prosperity of Boston. There are already in process of construction roads stretching toward Montreal, Burlington, Ogdensburg; roads branching from Albany will reach Kingston, and extend thence through Canada West; others running from Buffalo to Detroit, on both sides of Lake Erie, will ere long reach the upper sources of the Mississippi, and the child is now born who will see them terminate at the Pacific. The time may come when the expectation that led Columbus to seek a passage to India from Europe by proceeding west, will be realized, and the direct communication between these points may pass through the city of Boston.

"Such facilities of intercourse joined to the character and wealth of our population, render the progress of the city a matter of certainty. Occupying the nearest point to Europe, and connected with the North, the West, and the South by thousands of miles of internal communication, her increase will surpass the most sanguine anticipations of her friends."

3.—WHALE FISHERY, &c.

From an extended statement in the New Bedford *Shipping List*, we compile the following imports of Sperm and Whale Oils and Whalebone, into the United States, from January 1, 1845, to January 1, 1846.

1845.	Sperm.	Whale.	Bone.
January	bbls. 4,518	13,308	lbs. 118,061
February	16,125	50,555	538,519
March	9,736	29,199	343,675
April	19,914	56,746	686,386
May	20,335	65,575	559,150
June	13,131	10,253	65,000
July	16,347	20,259	208,219
August	3,344	10,212	313,373
September	9,944	12,052	106,489
October	9,137	2,705	23,319
November	10,327	1,377	5,800
December	9,629	540	....
Total	157,917	272,730	3,167,142

Imports of Sperm and Whale Oil, from Jan. 1, 1836, to Jan. 1, 1846; and of Bone, from Jan. 1, 1844, to Jan. 1, 1846:

	Sperm.	Whale.	Bone.
1836	132,356	226,564	....
1838	142,336	229,788	....
1840	157,791	207,966	....
1841	159,804	207,248	....
1842	165,527	161,041	....
1843	166,995	206,737	....
1844	139,894	262,047	2,582,445
1845	157,917	272,730	3,167,142

We estimate the quantity of Sperm Oil to arrive in 1846 at 117,000 bbls. Of Whale, it is impossible as yet to form an ostimate with any degree of accuracy, owing to the meagre accounts yet received from the North-west Coast.

Statement of Oils and Whalebone on hand, December 30, 1845:

	Sperm.	Whale.	Bone.
New Bedford	8,191	2,630	201,000
Fairhaven	6,000	2,000	10,000
Westport	3,200	....	....
Nantucket	about 20,000	....	....
Edgartown	1,200	....	....
Falmouth	500	....	....
Newport	500	...	....
Boston	1,100	....	....
Total	40,701	5,221	211,000

The above statement includes all recent importations, and all Crude Oils in manufacturers' hands, in the ports named.

Amount of Oil on hand, Jan. 1, 1845.

Sperm	bbls. 39,902
Whale	12,350

Average voyages—Arrivals in 1845:

	Av. Absence.	Av. cargo.
91 sperm whalers	42m. 21d.	1291 287
201 two-seasons rt. wh.	24 —	196 2187
9 one-season rt. wh.	12 4	46 344
43 Atlantic sp. wh.	13 7	236 76

Average statement of the prices of Sperm and Whale Oil and Whalebone.

	Sperm. gall.	Whale. gall.	Bone. lb.
1845	87½c.	39c.	39½c
1844	90½	38½	40
1843	63	34½	35½
1842	73	33½	23
1841	94	31½	19½
1840	100	30½	19

Comparative statement of the number and tonnage of vessels employed in the Whale Fishery, January 1:

	Ships and bks.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sloops.	Tons.
1846	680	34	22	1	222,282
1845	643	25	16	1	218,698
1844	595	41	8	1	200,147

Of the above the number owned at each port is as follows:

	Ships and barks.	Brigs.	Schrs.
New Bedford	222	3	1
Nantucket	73	1	0
New London	69	1	7
Sag Harbor	63	0	0
Fair Haven	48	0	0
Warren, R. I.	25	0	0
Stonington, Conn.	26	0	0
Mystic, Conn.	16	0	0
Greenport	11	0	0
Newport	10	1	1
Providence, R. I.	9	0	0
Edgartown	8	2	0
Cold Spring	8	0	0
Westport	8	2	0
Bristol R. I.	5	1	0
Mattapoisett	5	5	0
Fall River	5	2	0
Wareham	4	2	0
Falmouth	4	0	0
Holme's Hole	3	1	0
Provincetown	3	0	12
Lynn	3	0	0
Plymouth	3	0	0
Bridgeport, Conn.	2	0	0
Sippican	2	2	0

The remainder are owned at various ports—one o two vessels each.

COMMERCE OF PROVIDENCE, R. I.

Importations of the city of Providence for the yea ending December 31.

	1st qr.	2d qr.	3d qr.	4th q
Flour, bbls.	3,267	21,085	34,860	27,56
Cotton, bales	26,170	11,940	1,863	6,68
Coal, tons	1,945	17,490	38,433	13,19
Corn, bush.	130,246	227,135	211,258	196,6
Oats	12,250	16,728	14,687	5,19
Rye	2,229	1,800	1,228	1,41

Total, Flour, bbls.	78,379
Cotton, bales	46,080
Coal, tons	67,638
Corn, bush.	755,294
Oats	48,864
Rye	6,476

VINEYARD SOUND.

Number of vessels annually passing through Vin yard sound during the following years:

	Ships.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sloop
1843	144	1295	7561	361
1843	151	1194	8228	392
1844	152	1175	7443	256
1845	220	1631	8757	319

Years ending 16th December; and the number 1845, such as were seen from the light-vessel station near Tuckernuck Shoal.

4.—AMERICAN TEA.

The cultivation of Tea in small quantities, in Virginia, has been lately tri with success. Some specimens were exhibited at an agricultural fair by Mr. Puckett, who has devoted much time to the subject. From the letter accompan ing the samples, the following extract is made—

"The rolling of the leaf into the form in which it is brought from China, wholly unnecessary; but if it is desired, you have only to take the leaf after it cleared from the stalk and partly dried, and place it between your finger and thun and give it a tight squeeze.

"Once in, seed never out. After you have once sown the tea seed, you w never lack for plants; for, manage as you will, more seed will always fall up the ground than would be necessary for any plant bed; they will be in the grou all the winter, and come up with every rain during the next summer, and y may either transplant them, or you may thin them out into rows at the proper d

tance. Thus, notwithstanding the dryness of the season, I have now volunteer plants in the greatest profusion and of the finest quality.

"I assure you there is no reason in the world why the farmers and gardeners in the Southern States should not grow their own tea, and grace their own tables with this delightful beverage, infinitely more pure and wholesome than can be obtained from the unknown, adulterated stuff that comes from abroad."

5.—ARRIVALS AT NEW YORK, 1845.

From Foreign ports.

Steamers	11
Ships	880
Barks	364
Brigs	805
Galliots	6
Schooners	327
Sloop	1
Total	2044

Of which there were—

	Ships.	*Barks.*	*Brigs.*	*Schrs.*
American	678	289	542	245
British	17	26	184	70
Bremen	15	29	13	..
Swedish	4	17	30	8
Hamburg	5	14	1	..
French	1	6	6	..
Belgian	1	4	..	..
Norwegian	1	9	10	..
Sicilian	1	7	12	..
Danish	3	3	2	1
Dutch	..	6	1	2
Russian	2	1	6	..
Prussian	..	1	9	..
Austrian	..	1	3	..
Sardinian	..	1	3	..
Venezuelian	..	..	..	1
Mecklenburg	..	..	1	..
Portuguese	..	..	5	2
Columbian	..	..	5	..
Genoese	..	..	2	2
Mexican	..	..	1	..
Brazilian	1	..	1	..
Texan	..	..	..	1

	Steamers.	*Galliots.*	*Sloops.*
British	2	..	1
Mexican	3	..	..
Bremen		1	..
Dutch		5	..

	For. Ar.	*Br. Ves.*	*Pas'ngrs Ar.*
1840	1963	307	62,707
1841	2118	334	57,337
1842	1880	289	74,949
1843	1822	271	46,202
1844	2302	294	61,002
1845	2044	276	82,860

Coastwise.	*Ships.*	*B'ks.*	*Brigs.*	*Schrs.*	*Total.*
January	17	10	48	249	324
February	21	21	43	110	195
March	45	18	76	414	552
April	28	19	61	423	549
May	18	15	70	484	587
June	14	15	88	495	560
July	22	11	48	403	484
August	17	5	41	413	476
September	15	5	58	529	607
October	12	9	57	410	488
November	25	9	66	489	559
December	23	14	47	364	448

Whole number as above	5799
Which added to the foreign	2044
Makes a total for the year of	7843
Whole number last year	7568
Increase	275

Note.—In the above there are no sloops included, which, if added to the many schooners from Virginia and Philadelphia, with wood and coal, which are never boarded, owing to the remoteness of the points at which they come in, would make the number much greater.

6.—AFFAIRS OF THE STATES.

NEW YORK, PENNSYLVANIA, MARYLAND, MISSISSIPPI AND ALABAMA.

The late message of Governor Wright speaks encouragingly of the state of things in New York. All dangers in relation to the anti-rent riots are now supposed to be at an end. The common school system of the State would appear to be more than ordinarily flourishing. Its productive capital at the end of the fiscal year was $2,090.632 41, being an increase of $97,716 since 1844. The entire revenue of the fund for the year was $278,458 87, which, with the balance of 1844, make the whole means for educational purposes $367,478 33. The annual distribution to the common schools amounts to $275,000, to which are added the sums obtained in the different townships and cities, showing an aggregate for the year, including district libraries, of $786,000. This is on a scale sufficiently munificent.

The Treasurer of Pennsylvania has been enabled to pay the interest as it fell due on the funded debt of the past fiscal year. The public debt on the first of December, 1845, was $40,986 393, upon which the interest for 1846 is $2,023,996. The estimated receipts for the year 1846, according to the message of the Governor, are $3,602,586, the estimated expenditure $3,513,996, leaving a balance in the Treasury, December 1, 1846, of $88,590. The assessment for the year 1846 will be insufficient to meet the demands upon the Treasury for interest, &c., by the sum of $416,290, and the Governor is earnest in pressing the matter upon the attention of the Legislature.

The message of Governor Pratt, of Maryland, was delivered on the 31st of November. We furnish from our files an abstract of its contents.

It states that during the year more taxes have been collected than would pay the interest on the public debt—the collections being $710,784 51, the interest being $655,421 20. There remained due for arrears of interest on the first of December, 1845, $1,376,891 20, being $55,363 31 less than was due on the first of December, 1844.

The sinking fund of the State was, on the first of December, 1845, $1,404,030; and it is certain that it will, in the time limited by law, amount to enough to pay off the whole debt.

The entire debt of the State, bearing interest, is $11,986,784 98.

He suggests that if it be decided, as he seems to think it should be, to resume the cash payment of interest on the first of October, 1846, that it will be necessary to fund the arrearages of interest due on the first of July, 1846.

He then recommends the tax laws, and suggests such alterations in them as will make them more effective.

The receipts from the "Stamp Act" it is estimated will amount to $100,000 at the end of the year for which it went into operation; and he recommends that it be extended to all instruments which were, by the decision of the Court of Appeals, declared to be excluded by the phraseology of the existing law. He also recommends that lottery tickets be also required to be stamped.

Governor Brown's message to the Legislature of Mississippi, now in session, contains the following particulars of the condition of things in that State. By the Auditor's accounts up to 1844, it appears that the indebtedness of Mississippi on account of warrants is $614,743 83. Since then there have been issued others to the amount of $436,508 42, making an aggregate, up to the first of January, 1846, of $1,051,252 25. The amounts paid into the Treasury for the two years ending the first of January, 1846, $776,711 58, showing a balance outstanding of $271,707.

"The assessments of taxes for 1845 amount to $413,772 98; to this the Auditor adds $20,000 on account of miscellaneous items, and subtracts, for assessing, collecting, and insolvencies, $30,000, leaving a balance of $403,772 98; so that," observes Governor B., "by the close of the present fiscal year, should the tax collectors settle with the same promptness that characterized them in 1844, the State will have redeemed an amount equal to the warrants that are now outstanding, and leave a surplus, if no others were issued, of $131,062 91. Of the Auditor's warrants outstanding, but the sum of $105,845 09, due in 1846, and estimating the expenses for that year of the Legislature at $60,000, and the other expenses of the government at $125,000, $290,845 09 will have to be paid out of the Treasury, which will leave a surplus of $112 927 86."

The Committee of Ways and Means of the House of Representatives of Alabama report the total indebtedness of the State at the present to be $13,146,765 57, bearing the annual interest of $576,216, 58. The means of the State to meet this demand is estimated at $6,000,000, which will leave the sum of $7,146,756 57 unprovided for. The annual interest upon the stock, together with the expenses of State government, will have to be raised by taxation.

7.—UNITED STATES PUBLIC LANDS.

The following particulars are taken from the late report of Judge Shields, Commissioner of the Land Office.

During the year 1844, the sales of the public lands amounted to 1,754,763 acres, and the receipts into the land offices were $2,207,678; and during the first, second, and third quarters of the present year, the sale amounted to $1,266,668 acres, and the receipts into the land offices were $1,691,399.

The aggregate quantity of lands offered for sale the past year is 5,557,584 acres, of which 3,207,737 are withheld for various reasons (removable only by farther legislation); and 11,355,000 acres are expected to be surveyed during 1846.

In Ohio, all the public lands, with very slight exceptions, have been brought into market. The Wyandot reserve was the last introduced, and of that 35,394 acres were sold for $120,007, including Indian improvements worth $14,135, which is to be repaid to the Indians. In Indiana the only lands brought into market are those ceded by the Miami Indians, of which 365,868 acres have been surveyed. In Michigan, all the southern part and 462,741 acres of the northern have been surveyed, and are ready for the market.

In Illinois all the public lands have been surveyed, except 255,395 acres, of which 242,400 are withheld in consequence of their supposed mineral qualities.

In Missouri 728,123 acres have been offered at public sale, and 2,137,176 acres are now prepared for market.

In Wisconsin 377,706 acres have been sold in the Green Bay district. There are now ready for sale 381,968 acres, nearly all lying in the Mineral Point district.

In Iowa there were advertised for sale this year, large bodies of land, amounting to 2,380,337 acres, nearly equally divided between the districts of Dubuque

and Fairfield. The sales advertised for Fairfield, however, were subsequently postponed until the months of May and June next. The quantity of land at this time ready for sale in the Territory, exclusive of the postponed sales, amounts to 601,100 acres, comprising however, 286,126 acres detained from market in consequence of its supposed mineral qualities.

In Arkansas the quantity offered amounts to 1,029,826 acres, and 2,003,617 are ready. In Louisiana the lands advertised amount to 124,235 acres, and 481,204 more have been surveyed. In Mississippi 1,274 are surveyed and awaiting sale.

In Alabama only three townships remain to be brought into market.

In Florida 686,185 acres have been offered for sale. The number of permits granted under the act of 1842 has been 1048, covering 167,680 acres.

The surveys of the public lands have generally advanced in a satisfactory manner, and special pains have been taken to insure correctness in the surveys and promptness in their return.

8.—RAILWAYS IN PRUSSIA.

The *Prussian State Gazette* of the 2d inst., publishes in a supplement a table of the railroads in the Prussian dominions, with all the details relative to the working of those railroads in 1844. The Prussian railroads are twelve in number, viz.: the lines from Berlin to Potsdam, from Magdeburg to Leipsic, from Dusseldorf to Eberfeldt, from Berlin to Anhalt, from Berlin to Frankfort-on-Oder, from Magdeburg to Halberstadt, from Cologne to (Rhenish) Herbestal, from Berlin to Stettin, from Breslau to Oppeln (Upper Silesia), from Breslau to Friburg, from Cologne to Bonn, and from Breslau to Liegnitz (Lower Silesia Brandenburg). The total length of these twelve lines amounts to 122 German miles (203 leagues, 4 kilometres). The expenses of the construction and the materials amounted to 36,026,139 Prussian dollars. The working materials consist of 148 locomotives, 737 carriages of different classes, and 1,380 luggage wagons. These twelve railroads conveyed in 1844, 3,940,404 travelers, and 7,845,026 quintals of goods. The receipts amounted to 3,545,695 Prussian dollars, and the expenses of working and management to 1,837,929 dollars, which leaves a surplus of 1,707,766 dollars, equal to an interest on the capital of nearly 5 per cent. The new lines sanctioned and in course of construction are twenty in number, amounting to a total length of 265 German miles (442 leagues), with a capital of 76,700,000 dollars. Thus, when all these lines are completed, the net-work of railroads in Prussia will extend over a space of 646 leagues, and employ a capital of nearly 113,000,000 dollars (423,750,000f. or £16,950,000.

9.—UNITED STATES TREASURY.

We have before us the report of Secretary Walker, showing the revenue and expenditures of the government for the year ending 30th June, 1845.

Receipts and Means, 1845.

From customs	$27,528,112 70
From sales of public lands	2,077,022 30
From miscellaneous sources	163,998 56
Total receipts	$29,769,133 56
Add balance in Treasury, July 1, 1844	7,857,379 64
Total means	$37,626,513 20
The expenditures during the same fiscal year amounted to	29,968,206 98
Leaving a balance in Treasury, July 1st, 1845, of	$7,658,306 22

THE

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

Volume I. MARCH, 1846. No. 3.

Art. I.—INTERNATIONAL RIGHTS OF PEACE AND WAR.

In one of the most beautiful pastorals of Virgil, the shepherd Tityrus, is represented as rejoicing in the restoration of law and order throughout Italy, when the gates of the Temple of Janus closed by Augustus Cæsar, proclaimed the recurrence of universal peace. It is the happy fortune of those who belong to the present generation to enjoy the scenes so touchingly portrayed by the Latin bard, with scarce a possibility left of their future interruption We are at peace with all the world; and peace appears at last to be the settled policy of nations. Mankind have turned their swords into ploughshares or into pruning hooks, and flung their banners to the breezes only at the mast-head of their commercial marine. We hear of no other artillery breaking upon the quietude of nations, than that of the watchful revenue cruiser, the sunset gun of the dismantled fortification, or the signal of the distressed merchantman struggling with the storms and the deep.

The world is growing old, and has passed through epochs which have been respectively characterized as "the golden," "the brazen," and "the iron ages;" but the age which has come at last may be characterized, in opposition to all the others, as that of sound reason humanity, and common sense. It has come about that machinery and railroads monopolize the whole stock of those metals which could formerly be spared to squander upon cannon ball and artillery The flesh, and the blood too, the bone, sinews, and muscles, the broad shoulders, which would have made the old commander Condé's mouth water as a military epicure, and produced the finest "Roman holiday" in the world, have all been irretrievably degraded to purposes of trade and manufactures, to hewing down forests, peopling wildernesses, and extending human enterprise. What is the world coming to at last, when not a bosom throbs for ambition's battle-fields strewn with human wrecks—or conqueror's cars graced with captives and rolling onward through blood and fire? We say again—What is the world coming to?

It is very strange that men should have suffered themselves to learn so ridiculous a lesson, as that they were placed in this world for any other purpose but to destroy each other or themselves. A deist philosopher argued that Christianity had a tendency to make bad soldiers, because it taught the fear of death. But, whatever has caused the mischief, one thing is certain, that men are desperately bent now upon living as long as they can, and upon dying only when

it is impossible to do anything else. Mr. Malthus' followers will grow serious in such a state of things, and begin to prognosticate that this world of ours will soon have more to provide with food and raiment than its narrow limits will very well admit. Hobbes, wherever he is in the other world, will hold down his head, if he has one left, with very chagrin to find how wofully he missed it in claiming war to be the natural state of man, interrupted now and then by an episode of peace.

It was in school-boy days, when good old Æsop made us right merry, and when we wondered why, after every one of his stories, there came a dry paragraph entitled *moral*—in those days we used to look at the picture of a grave hedgehog grinding up his half worn out tusks against the side of a rock, and a quizzical-looking wolf near by, with a leer upon his physiognomy, wondering what in the world his foolish neighbor could be about, now that amity had been determined on between all the beasts of the forest, and nothing appeared likely to interrupt it. The moral of the story was, and we are inclined to think the hedgehog made the sage reflection, that peace was the natural season to prepare for war. This hedgehog philosophy became at once wonderfully popular, and was conceived to be every whit as good as Aristotle's. But men went even farther than the hedgehog, for they soon began to conceive it a great pity that such keen-edged teeth should be suffered to lose their enamel and point from the want of employment. At the present day, the general understanding is, that the hedgehog was decidedly wrong, and that, as soon as peace was declared, he ought to have plucked out his teeth altogether. The maxim now is—in peace prepare to maintain peace! That "villanous saltpetre," which was wont to smoke so well at cannons' mouths, and which was really fit for little else, unless to be stored away in filthy dark magazines, has been found out to be very good indeed for curing meats, and fixing indelible dye-stuffs. It would be as wise at this day to prepare for war as it was for the Greek fool to buy a crow, that he might determine, by his own experience, whether it would in fact, as it was represented to him, live two hundred years. Verily, we ask again—What is this world coming to?

We ran into this train of thought in spite of ourselves, on taking up the pen for a subject such as the one before us. We have been watching rather attentively the signs of the times within the last few years, as exhibited in Europe and at home. We were fond once of the era of the crusaders and of chivalry, but have forgotten all that now. We have cried war, war, too, and have heard others join in the cry; but on meeting together in the streets, a sense of having played the ridiculous has come upon us, and we realized the position of the Roman priesthood, of whom it is said, that they could scarcely look each other in the face without laughing outright. The shepherd boy cried wolf too often.

We have, within the last ten years, passed through a great many crises, but, in the providence of God, are yet safe. It is fresh in all of our memories what a flare-up there was when that iron hero, swaying the destinies of the nation, vowed by the laurels of Chalmetté, that he would buckle on his sword, and let loose the barking

imps of war, if a single *livre* were retained from us by French spoliators. Hard upon this came that Maine boundary controversy, which made militia border men brush up their musketry; the M'Leod farce, enacted in New York—not farce in the noble course pursued by the authorities of that State in trying the incendiary for his life, but in the British interference and parliamentary gasconade. There was, verily, scarce a man in the nation who would have risked his character for seeing through a millstone, by discovering one earthly chance to avert the sword and the cannon's mouth. These things passed away after awhile, and then there came rolling along "Texas, Mexico, and the whole of Oregon," which, we presume, are to have their hour upon the stage, and to be kicked yet awhile longer from one side of the Atlantic to the other, and back again. Some other apple will then be found, like that the indignant goddess threw in among her silly rivals, as mythology tells us, inscribed *detur pulchriori*—"the most beautiful take me," which stirred up more discord among the fair Grecian divinities than Greek heaven had ever witnessed before. We are not so sure but that was the time when Vulcan, joining in the fray, was kicked out of heaven for his pains, and came tumbling down "a pernicious height," to go lame afterward to the last days of his mythological life. When Oregon and Texas are all healed up, this new apple will come rolling along, and such another scramble there will be for it again. We are curious in anticipation.

We have paused to indulge a smile that one who is capable of talking, in such a matter of fact way, should ever seriously think of setting about an article for a magazine, with such a caption as the "international rights of peace and war." The latter term, it will be said at once, ought to be dismissed peremptorily from our title, and we should go to work heart and soul in writing a eulogy upon peace, and in exhibiting the causes which tend to its perpetuity. This, we admit, would be more consistent, but somehow or other we have always had an unaccountable predilection for ancient and obsolete learning—for such we account that which relates to war—and its cultivation has become at last with us a passion. We like to see what the world thought a hundred or a thousand years ago, and determine in this way what perchance it might be induced to think again, did some of those foolish old-fashioned notions about war and conquest take possession of its brain. We are not altogether alone in this whimsical predilection. Many a reader there is, we think, who would not particularly object to going over this field with an honest, though perhaps a laughing guide. We promise to be as serious as we can, and are quite sure that some, at least, of our friends will be serious in earnest. To such we say, that our province and our duty will be to unfold truths and principles which they are or are not at liberty to consider practical. Our own notion is, and there, perhaps, is the issue between us, that these truths and principles will continue henceforth, we mean so far as they relate to war, as they are now—knowledge, to be sure, very fine but very theoretical.

Without farther apology, then, explanation, or comment, we proceed, with all the resources we are able to command, to the prosecution of the undertaking before us, which is—

First.—To exhibit the foundation and sources of that system o equity which is understood and applied among the different modern and Christian nations of the earth, in their intercourse with each other.

Second.—To sketch the rise, progress and history of this system of international equity, or, as it is termed, international law.

Third.—To determine those rights which pertain to independent states and communities, during the maintenance of pacific relations with the rest of mankind.

Fourth.—To develop the new phasis presented on the interruption of peace, with the modes of declaring, conducting and terminating war.

Fifth.—To exhibit the effects, as between the belligerents themselves.

Sixth.—Application of the rules of war to the rights and duties of neutral nations.

I. The laws of nations, we are told, in an admirable summary made by an American jurist, is a complex system, composed of various ingredients. It consists of general principles of right and justice, equally suitable to the government of individuals in a state of natural equality, and to the relation and conduct of nations; of a collection of usages and customs, the growth of civilization and COMMERCE, and of a code of conventional or positive law.

The law of nations, or international law, says another eminent American, and for many years our resident minister at the Court of Berlin, as understood among civilized Christian nations, may be defined as consisting of those rules of conduct which reason deduces as consonant to justice from the nature of the society existing among independent nations; with such definitions and modifications as may be established by general consent.

The term *law*, importing as it does the language of a superior to an inferior, is only applied figuratively to express those rules of conduct which free, equal, and independent nations are willing to admit between each other. Each independent political power in the world is a sovereign, and has no superior, and consequently can receive no law, in the full sense of that term. Hence it was that Chancelor d'Aguesseau substituted in lieu of the phrase, law of nations, *droit des gens*, an expression approaching more nearly the true definition, *droit entre les gens*—law between nations; and hence the general acquiescence given to the term, proposed, we believe, by Mr. Bentham, international law.

International law has its foundation in natural right or equity, and its rules are those which are derived from sound and enlightened reason and justice. But it does not follow thence that whatever a nation conceives to be right and proper, is the rule for that nation to observe. Nor is it true that natural law, which is said to govern individuals in their conduct toward each other previous to the formation of society, is applicable in its full extent, and binding upon societies of individuals or states in their mutual relations. The same rule cannot be stringently applied to cases so essentially dissimilar as individuals and communities. The rule in the one instance must be accommodated, relaxed, or modified, as the case may be, with the new state of things to which it is to be applied.

It was long a dispute between the most celebrated masters of this system of jurisprudence, whether its authority in regulating national concerns was derivable from a foundation in nature, or natural law applicable to all of God's creatures indiscriminately; or whether the whole force of the system was dependent upon the usage and voluntary admission and adoption of the particular rules by each and every nation to be affected by them. Many labored treatises have been exhausted upon the subject. If the former opinion were true, the term international law, would not be at all applicable to that system of comity which obtains between Mahomedan nations, since we know very well, according to our notions of natural law, that much is admitted between them which could not be at all sanctioned by its authority. Were the latter opinion only true, nations would be relieved from the necessity which impends over individuals, of acting according to the strict and highest rules of probity, honor, or justice, if it pleased them to be so. The fact is, neither of these views is correct; as our definition afforded above will exemplify. International law, says Mr. Wheaton, does not merely consist of the principles of natural justice applied to the conduct of states, considered as moral beings. There exists no universal, immutable law of nations, which mankind, in all ages and countries, ancient and modern, savage or civilized, Christian and Pagan, have recognized in theory or in practice, have professed to obey, or have in fact obeyed; no law of nations similar to that law of right reason of which Cicero speaks, "which is congenial to the feelings of nature diffused among all men, uniform, eternal, commanding us to do our duty, and prohibiting every violation of it;" one eternal and immortal law which can neither be repealed nor derogated from, addressing itself to all nations and all ages, deriving its authority from the common Sovereign of the universe, seeking no other law-giver and interpreter, carrying home its sanctions to every breast, by the inevitable punishment he inflicts on its trangressors.

Chancelor Kent has finely shown the two points in which international law may be considered:—"the most useful and practical part of the law of nations is no doubt instituted or positive law, founded on usage, consent, and agreement, But it would be improper to separate this law entirely from natural jurisprudence, and not to consider it as deriving much of its force and dignity from the same principles of right reason, the same views of the nature and constitution of man, and the same sanction of divine revelation as those from which the science of morality is deduced. We ought not, therefore, to separate the science of public law from that of ethics, nor encourage the dangerous suggestion that governments are not so strictly bound by the obligations of truth, justice, and humanity, in relation to other powers as they are in the management of their own local concerns."

Having traced as well as we were able, the foundations of the science about which our present article is conversant, we shall briefly exhibit those components parts which, taken together, make up and constitute what is understood as international law, by the different civilized and Christian nations of the present day. They are classified as follows, in the best authorities:

1st. Those rules of conduct which sound and enlightened reason is disposed to admit, as it were, intuitively.
2d. The opinions of able and learned men who have devoted their lives to the examination of the rules of justice and morality, and who have enriched mankind by the publication of invaluable treatises.
3d. The precedents established, or cases adjudicated by individuals learned in the law, and appointed by their respective governments to sit in courts of prize and arbitration.
4th. Treaties entered into between different, equal, and independent powers.
5th. The history and diplomacy of sovereign states.

¶ II. We come now to sketch the rise, progress, and history of the system which we have been defining. Of course, we need not go farther into antiquity than the period of Grecian empire. There is an incident mentioned by Montesquieu, we think, which exhibits the exquisite sensitiveness and refinement of the Athenians in pronouncing upon the rules of kindness and benevolence:—a tiny little bird, fluttering and bewildered in its attempts to escape from one of a larger species pursuing with opened talons, took refuge at last from its pursuer in the bosom of a boy. The boy, grasping the agitated thing in his hand, with exultation, wrung off its neck. The Athenians were filled with horror at the deed, and conceived the culprit deserving of death who could exhibit such unfeeling cruelty and insensibility. From the incident we might suppose that such a people would be disposed to admit the laws of kindness and humanity toward all the world. It was not so. Everything that was not Greek, was barbarian; and all barbarians, according to the prince of Greek philosophers, Aristotle, were designed by nature as the slaves of his countrymen. The traveling philosopher was liable to be seized and sold into bondage. Prisoners might be put to death without any compunction. National fleets were adapted to purposes of piracy. The Amphyctionic Council is mentioned as a kind of international institution with the Greeks for the settlement only of their disputes with each other. Resident ministers were admitted to a small extent. The only evidences of any system on this subject which a learned writer, quoted by Wheaton, could find in Greece, were, the rites of sepulture granted to the dead in battle—the mercy exhibited to refugees at a temple—the freedom enjoyed by all Greeks to resort to public games and temples without molestation—the severe punishment for sacrilege, and forbearance in not erecting durable trophies after victory.

The genius and spirit of Rome, as is known by every school-boy, were military. Power, aggrandizement, conquest, was the ruling and the master passion. Stern, selfish and overbearing, the Roman never advanced beyond the capitol and the seven hills. He had no sympathies beyond these; "not that I love Cæsar less, but Rome more," was the one fierce and dominant sentiment from the era of Romulus to the downfall of the empire. For more than seven centuries, says Mr. Wheaton, the Romans pursued a scheme of aggrandizement, conceived in deep policy and prosecuted with inflexible pride and pertinacity, at the expense of all the useful pursuits and

charities of life. All solicitude for the fate of their fellow-citizens made captive in war, was disdained by their stern and crafty policy.

> Hoc caveat mens provida Reguli
> Dissentientis conditionibus
> Fœdis, et exemplo trahenti
> Perniciem veniens in ævum,
> Si non periet immiserabilis
> Captiva pubes.

The fruits of this Roman system are easily conceived. Victory left no rights to the vanquished. Every possession passed at once out of their hands, and themselves and families entered upon a cruel and interminable bondage. Kings and generals in chains were a necessary appendage to the conqueror's chariot wheels; and the Eternal City shouted with the gorgeous spectacle. Even in the most polished ages of the empire, when its philosophy and its jurisprudence had advanced to high perfection, the doctrine was still asserted that prisoners of war became slaves as a matter of course, and that without stipulation to the contrary, even in time of peace whoever passed from one country to another became inevitably a slave. "It is impossible," says Kent, "to conceive of a rule of international law more directly calculated to destroy all commercial intercourse, and to maintain eternal enmity between nations."

The only traces of an approach to a correct understanding of national rights and duties among the Romans, is to be found in the principle carried out that only a sworn soldier could lawfully engage with the enemy, and in the establishment of the Fecial law and college of heralds, charged with the rights of war and peace. Cicero in vain protested against the enormities practised by his countrymen, and the unfeeling systems which they cherished.

The laws in relation to shipwrecked property are adduced by writers in proof of the state of things which characterized even the most polished nations of antiquity. The constant custom of the Rhodians was to devote to plunder everything that had been wrecked upon the seas and thrown to the shore. The Romans adopted the system with the improvement of appropriating them to the state. The emperors Hadrian and Antoninus renounced their claim if the rightful owner could be found; but this liberal policy found little countenance with their successors.

International law may be correctly represented as the offspring of the civilization, commerce, and Christian influences of modern ages. We have recognized nothing of it before the Christian era, and we see as little in that fearful and gloomy period of a thousand years which followed the overthrow of the Roman empire by barbarians from the Northern hive. "Numerous cases occurred of acts of the greatest perfidy and cruelty toward strangers and enemies. Prisoners were put to death for their gallantry and brave defense in war. There was no reliance upon the word and honor of men in power. Reprisals and private war were in constant activity. Instances were frequent of the violation of embassies, of the murder of hostages, the imprisonment of guests, and the killing of heralds. The victor in war had his option in dealing with prisoners, either to put them to death, to reduce them to slavery, or exact an exorbitant ransom for

their deliverance. So late as the time of Cardinal Richelieu it was held to be the right of all nations to arrest strangers who came into the country without a safe conduct."

Mr. Ward discovers the causes of the regeneration of Europe from ignorance and anarchy, in the institution of the feudal system, in the union of all nations in one form of religious worship, in chivalry, in treaty stipulations, which began to grow prevalent, and in an acknowledgment of the rights and rank of ambassadors. The discovery of the long-lost Roman jurisprudence at Amalfi, in the twelfth century, has been added to the list; but, according to Mr. Wheaton, with little propriety, as the influences of this law had never been lost in Europe. The conquered nations, he tells us, though not permitted to retain their lands and possessions by their Gothic masters, were yet allowed their jurisprudence; so that the study and practice of Roman law could never have been abandoned even in the darkest night of the middle ages. The Roman law, he goes on to say, infused itself into the Roman church, and was reproduced in the canon law compiled by Gregory IX.

We are not allowed to suppose that the perverse application of Christianity, such as it existed at that period, really was efficient in producing good. Even as late as the times of Queen Elizabeth and Lord Bacon, a war upon infidels to enforce obedience to the Christian faith, was considered laudable. Coke doubted not that an alliance for mutual defense between Christians and Turks was very reprehensible. Grotius thought it clear that Christendom was bound to be united against the infidels. Bacon, in the language of Chancelor Kent, conceived it a matter of so much doubt as to propound it seriously as a question, whether a war with infidels was not first in the order of dignity, and to be preferred to all other just temporal quarrels; and whether a war with infidels might not be undertaken merely for the propagation of the Christian faith.

About the middle of the sixteenth century, Francis de Victoria, Dominic Soto and Francisco Suarez, able and enlightened men, began to perceive some clear traces of light through the rubbish by which they were surrounded. Soto wrote a treatise upon justice and law, and Suarez on divine and human legislation. Gentilis, an Italian, escaped to England about the same time, from ecclesiastical persecution at home, and was elevated to a professorship at Oxford. According to Mr. Wheaton, the fruits of the professional labors of this civilian were given to the world in the earliest reports of judicial decisions on maritime law published in Europe. His work upon the law of war "served as a light to guide the path of the illustrious Grotius when he entered upon and pursued the same track of investigation in the following century."

Hugo Grotius was one of a galaxy of great men who added glory to their age and country. He arose, we are told, like a splendid luminary, dispelling darkness and confusion, and imparting light and security to the intercourse of nations; his immortal work on the laws of peace and war being found under the nightly "pillow of Gustavus Adolphus in that heroic war which he waged in Germany for the liberties of Protestant Europe."

Grotius had experienced in his own heart the enlivening, elevating,

and ennobling influences of true Christianity. He regarded, like Lord Bacon, the establishment of truth and science; but more than all, he regarded the doctrines of reason and humanity. This enlightened German laid down the first and original principles which should govern as well the intercourse of nations as of individuals. His was the first full and systematic treatise upon the rights and duties of independent powers; and he fortified himself with illustrations from the history of mankind in every age, from the sentiments of poets, philosophers, historians, civilians and divines, so that his labors constitute almost a perfect library of knowledge. His work has been elevated to the dignity of the classics, by being edited, as we are told, *cum commentariis variorum.*

From the time of Grotius until this, there have existed a series of brilliant writers upon the intercourse of nations, whose works have received the highest admiration, and been admitted to the greatest authority among men. Puffendorf wrote an immense volume, which we have sometimes seen in antiquarian libraries. The slumber of the once celebrated work of Wolfius, in nine ponderous tomes, is thought by Mr. Wheaton to be not often disturbed. The names of Burlemaqui, Barbeyrac, Wiquefort and Rutherforth, succeed; as also those of Martens and Bynkershoeck. Vattel closes the catalogue of these brilliant lights. As a writer, he is chaste; in style, clear, eloquent and popular; and although found fault with for a want of scientific precision, his work has been more frequently referred to among nations of late years than those of all his predecessors. Chancelor Kent, in the first volume of his commentaries, goes over all the ground embraced in these writers, and furnishes a most beautiful treatise upon the subject; to which, and the valuable and philosophical work of Henry Wheaton, we acknowledge the largest indebtedness.

III. The third division of our subject embraces the rights which pertain to independent states and communities during the maintenance of pacific regulations with the rest of the world. The history of mankind exhibits one continuous series of offensive and defensive hostilities, and yet we are told on high authority, that war is undertaken for the sake of peace. One of the first and highest principles of public law is, that nations, without reference to character, population or resources, are to be considered in relation to each other, on terms of perfect equality. The legitimate occupation of every nation is to look after and provide for its own affairs, without any right whatever to intermeddle with those of its neighbors. Nothing but extreme necessity will justify such interference, and it must partake of the right and be founded upon the clearest principles of self-defense even to be tolerated. It was thus that Sir Walter Scott, in his life of Napoleon, endeavored to justify the Crown of England for seizing upon the Danish fleet; but the pretext was in this instance, we think, entirely too flimsy. The dismemberment of Poland by the Northern powers, the Prussian invasion of Holland in 1787, and of France five years after, are introduced as violations of these clear international rights. In the same category are to be found the Austrian invasion of Naples in 1820, the French invasion of Spain in 1823, and the frequent interference of the other powers of Europe in the elections of the Ger-

manic empire, the kingdom of Poland, and the see of Rome. Lord Castlereagh laid down the law on this point as England understood it in 1821.

1st.—That the clear right of interference existed when the internal transactions of a state endangered seriously the security and interests of others.

2d.—The interference to be grounded only on the strongest necessity.

3d.—That it did not apply, indiscriminately, to all revolutionary movements.

4th.—That in any case it was an exception to general rules of great value and importance.

The cases where it is supposed that the rule was observed were, the English assistance granted to the Netherlands in their struggles with Spain; the French alliance with us in our revolution; the recognition of the independence of the South American provinces in 1822, and of Texas more recently. The alliance of Britain, France and Russia, for the relief of the cruelly oppressed Greeks, stands on peculiar grounds. Humanity itself called for an interference where all its principles had been trodden under foot by a barbarous and despotic government. We quote from Mr. Wheaton the preamble of the three powers which asserted the "necessity of putting an end to the sanguinary contest which, by delivering up the Greek provinces and the isles of the Archipelago to all the disorders of anarchy, produces daily fresh impediments to the commerce of the European states, and gives occasion to piracies, which not only expose the subjects of the high contracting parties to considerable losses, but besides, render necessary burthensome measures of protection and repression."

It arises out of the perfect independence of nations that they have a right to form treaties and compacts with all the rest of the world; that they may form alliances offensive and defensive, and grant to particular nations privileges of trade, etc., which they refuse to others, without justifiable cause of complaint. The United States in 1807, by an embargo, carried out the privilege to the greatest extent, by shutting up their ports to all the world; but in general, the policy of our country has been on the side of entire liberality toward all its neighbors. We see this in the commercial treaties formed with Central America, Denmark, Sweden, and the Hanseatic cities, and in the suggestions of the late presidential message in relation to Spain, Portugal, and the Netherlands, whose interests were somewhat unduly affected by the tariff of 1842.

It also arises out of the independence of nations that the right of legislation extends only to their own territory and subjects. To this great rule we will enumerate what are apparent exceptions, but what are countenanced and adopted by the comity of states, constituting one of the subjects of Judge Story's "Conflict of Laws."

1. The qualities of individuals in their own states as citizens, legitimate, illegitimate, idiot, lunatic, bankrupt, married, divorced, etc., follow them wherever they go. To this there is, to some extent, an exception in the case of citizens, for they may contract obligations in other countries inconsistent with their citizenship. England, however, protests against any such right as that of *expatriation*, claimed by her citizens found in arms against her, and the United States have

never yet, and perhaps never will go the extent of admitting such a right. There is another exception to the rule in the case of bankrupts' certificates of discharge, which, on the authority of the Supreme Court, if obtained abroad, do not bind the property of the bankrupt found in this country.

2. The law of the place of contract is the law of the contract; as where one dies and leaves effects in a foreign country, their distribution follows the law of the country of his domicil or residence; and a testament or contract with the necessary legal solemnities in one country would have effect in any other.

The exceptions are in cases where the contract would conflict with the laws of other states, or with their fundamental policy. The French will not allow a subject to be legally married abroad, if he would not have reached at home the age of consent. The contested question of marriage which so long agitated the English and Scotch courts, is now determined, and in favor of the rule laid down.

3. The sovereign's person, or his ambassador, or his army marching through a foreign country, are still subject to the laws of their own. The Consuls at the Barbary States, and in Turkey, administer justice between their countrymen by virtue of an international compact, and apply the jurisprudence of their respective countries.

4. The judgment of a prize or admiralty court, having cognizance of the case before it, is valid in all the world.

5. The fleets or merchantmen of a nation on the high seas are still within the jurisdiction of their sovereigns. Out of this grows the two great doctrines of the freedom of the seas, and the right of search.

"Navigable rivers which flow through a territory and the sea-coast adjoining it, and the navigable waters included in bays and between headlands and arms of the sea, belong to the sovereign of the adjoining territory." The ocean is essentially the common property of all mankind—

> "Man marks the earth with ruin—his control
> Stops with the shore."

This doctrine of reason was asserted as early as the time of Grotius in his resistance of the rights claimed by Portugal and Britain; and we are told that Archbishop Laude forthwith employed the able advocate Selden to maintain the contrary, which he did in his celebrated volume *Mare Clausum*. Other writers have adopted the views of Selden, and the question can as yet be hardly said to be settled between nations. The current of modern authority, according to Kent, extends the territorial jurisdiction out into the sea as far as can be reached by a cannon ball, or one marine league. The whole of Delaware bay has been considered as within the jurisdiction of the United States. Kent goes on to say "that it is certain that our government would be disposed to view with some uneasiness and sensibility, in the case of a war between other maritime powers, the use of the waters of our coast, far beyond the reach of cannon shot, as cruising ground for belligerent purposes, and that there can be little doubt that, as the United States advance in commerce and naval strength, our government will be disposed more and more to feel and acknowledge the justice and policy of the British claim to supremacy over the narrow seas adjacent to the British islands, because we shall stand

in need of similar accommodation and means of security." It was thus Venice claimed sovereignty over the Adriatic, Turkey over the Euxine, Denmark over a portion of the Baltic, and the Baltic powers in general over that sea which is almost internal in relation to them. Of great rivers passing through several states, their navigation has been made free on different occasions, as the Rhine, the Neckar, the Elbe, &c. The Rhine was free in 1831, from the point where it becomes navigable into the sea. The United States claimed the free navigation of the Mississippi against the pretensions of Spain, and the St. Lawrence against those of England.

The right of search, as it is called, has been the ground of great dissension and difficulties between nations. As a war right its existence is not questioned, but the extension of it to such cases as has been countenanced by England appears to be against the common sense of mankind. The armed neutrality of the Baltic powers denied the existence of such a right in 1801. The United States went to war in 1813 for the abuse of it. The government of the United States, whatever it might indulge in the right of search for contraband, declared officially, and repeated the declaration on every occasion, that they "do not understand the laws of nations to authorize or admit the right of search for subjects or seamen. The enormous abuses which were perpetrated by England upon our commerce under this sanction are but too familiar to all.

The jurisdiction of every state belongs of right, and extends to every individual found within its territories. The exceptions are in favor of public ministers, which will be treated of in another place. The question is one of great importance, how far protection is due to those who take up their residence in a state after having committed offences against the laws of another state. The better opinion seems to be that, without any treaty stipulations, the government is in duty bound to surrender up those guilty of crimes of great atrocity, and deeply affecting the public. The obligation is confined to these aggravated cases. The Governor of Vermont surrendered the murderer Holmes, and was sustained by the supreme court of that State. The principle operates to its full extent among the States of the American Union, though perversely denied in the case of New York and Virginia in 1839, with regard to the felony committed on the negro slave Isaac. Judge Kent is full upon the subject. There have been numerous treaties between governments bearing upon the question which are still in effect.

We observed that there was an exception to national jurisdiction in the case of public ministers. The present is a fitting occasion to develop the rights which pertain to these functionaries, and their graduations and privileges according to the laws of nations.

It is the essential right of every independent State, but not its imperative duty, to send and receive public deputies and ambassadors. An ambassador is the representative of his sovereign, and partakes of his dignity and immunities in the country to which he is sent. Ambassadors were treated with great respect even in antiquity, but in modern times their persons and property are regarded as inviolable. The Congress of Viénné and of Aix-la-Chepelle, in 1815, made the following graduation of public ministers;—

1. Ambassadors, and papal legates or nuncios.
2. Envoys, ministers, or others accredited to sovereigns.
3. Resident ministers.
4. Chargés d' affaires, accredited to ministers of foreign affairs.

These distinctions are, however, little more than those of diplomatic etiquette. The first class more particularly partakes of the *representative* character according to the general understanding.

The foreign minister, by a fiction of law, is regarded as still within the territory of his own sovereign. His children are not aliens, though born in reality abroad, and his freedom from local jurisprudence extends to his family, his suit, his effects, and his servants. He can commit no offence, even murder or treason, which would render him liable to capital punishment in the country where he resides. He may be sent out of the country, but cannot be punished. There may be cases, says Mr. Wheaton, which might, under circumstances of sufficient aggravation, warrant the state thus offended in proceeding against an ambassador as a public enemy, or in inflicting punishment upon his person if justice should be refused by his own sovereign. But the circumstances which would authorize such a proceeding are hardly capable of precise definition, resolving themselves into the paramount right of self-preservation. Neither the minister, family, nor servants can be arrested for debt, his person and personal effects are not liable to taxation, and attempts to violate either of those privileges have been attended with most serious consequences.

The United States are represented at the courts of Great Britain, France, Russia, Prussia, Brazil, and Spain, by ministers plenipotentiary, whose outfit is fixed at $9,000, and whose annual salary is $9,000 more. In China, and the Sandwich Islands we have been represented by commissioners. In Turkey we have a resident minister; and in the other European, and South American States, chargés d'affaires. The salary of a minister is $6,000, of a chargés $4,500.

Consuls are public agents of a very different character. They are employed for commercial purposes, and reside in the sea-port towns of foreign nations. In the January number of the Commercial Review, we sketched the rise and progress of the Consular system. Consuls have no particular immunities under the laws of nations. In civil and criminal cases they are as much subject to local law as any other citizens. Consuls at the Mahomedan and Barbary ports partake, however, of the nature of resident ministers. The United States have two consuls in Buenos Ayres, three in Austria, one at Baden, three in Barbary States, one in Belgium, eight in Brazil, two in Central America, three in Chili, three in China, two in Denmark, two in Danish Islands, one in Egypt, one at the Equator, seven in France, seven in England, eight in West Indies, one in South America, one in Africa, three in Scotland, five in Ireland, three in North America, two at Australia, three in East Indies, one in Greece, three in Hanseatic towns, three at St. Domingo, twelve in Mexico, one in Prussia, three in Italy, four in Russia, two in Sardinia, two in Saxony, five in Spain, four at Cuba, four at Porto Rico, four in Sweden and Norway, two in Switzerland, four in Texas, three in Turkey, two in Tuscany, three in Sicily, six in Uruguay and Venezuela, &c.

The defects in the consular system of our country, as we have on another occasion stated, are manifold and grievous. Many efforts have been made to produce a reform, but thus far without success. The larger proportion of our consuls, in fact nearly the whole, are foreigners or merchants. The former can hardly be expected to take any deep interest in our commercial rights where there would be any interference with those of their own nation, and it is perhaps calculating too largely upon the patriotism of the latter, to suppose that their own private concerns for the smallest pittance of a compensation should be made entirely subservient to the interests they represent. As the United States progress more and more in maritime and commercial empire, the importance of this subject will impress itself upon the minds of those who have the concerns of the nation in charge.

IV. We pass to the fourth division of our subject, which relates to the new state of things presented on the disturbance of the relations of amity between nations. It is not every disturbance of these relations which is characterized war. The disturbance may be to a certain extent only, and have its fruits in a suspension of intercourse, in acts of aggression or retaliation without any open avowed hostility or public war. There is a great principle laid down by writers upon international law, which is as broad as the golden rule of revelation—"to do unto others as we would have them do unto us;" the principle is, that nations are bound to do each other as much good in times of peace as possible, and as little harm in times of war. Alas, that the history of mankind furnishes so cheerless a commentary upon the text—that philanthropy has so lost itself in selfishness—that the beautiful sentiments of the actor which could cause even three thousand Romans to rise to their feet at the theatre, in admiration, has had so little practical application: *Homo sum, humani nihil a me alienum puto*:—I am a man, to whom everything relates that concerns the human family.

War, according to Lord Bacon, is an appeal to the justice of God, by a resort to arms. It is founded upon the great principle and conservatory element of human nature, self-defense. The quarrels of individuals may be terminated and their wrongs redressed by the civil authorities which they have constituted; but who shall redress the wrongs of nations which admit no superior and no umpire upon earth? Nothing but force is the alternative, and an appeal to the God of battles. Wars there have been for conquest, for empire and dominion: Cæsars, Alexanders, and Napoleons have deluged the world with blood: these are monstrous violations of the order of nature and of the laws which regulate it. A war of resistance from oppression and tyranny; a Polish struggle against the fearful Russian yoke; a Greek with his foot upon the neck of the Ottoman who would enslave him, with all the recollections of his country's faded glory upon his heart, and the invocation upon his lips—

> "Earth! render back from out thy breast
> A remnant of our Spartan dead:
> Of the three hundred grant but three
> To make a new Thermopylæ."

All of this is natural and just, and reproved by no mandate, not

even by that of the highest court of the universe. Our own revolution too belongs to the same class. But how many wars have such a foundation? How idle and ridiculous the causes, independent of ambition, which have desolated whole empires, and offered up millions of victims on altars consecrated to pride, to revenge, or to barbarism? The madness or the glory of Napoleon is responsible for the lives of three millions of Frenchmen. The past history of the world has never been without its Napoleons. In vain do we search even in primitive ages for the better principle which modern times inculcate and appear determined to carry out. There never before was a period when the figure of scripture could be applied, "that the lion laid down with the lamb." The second man in the world, says one, was a murderer; and the most beautiful garden, we add, was the first to drink in human gore. Cannot the common sense of nations organize a government or congress, to sit periodically for the settlement of disputes between each other with the same efficiency that disputes are settled between individuals and subjects by the authority of law? We appeal to the civilization of mankind.

A justifiable cause of war is said to be found in an injury done or threatened to the perfect right of a nation or any of its members, and susceptible of no other redress. Even an injury to an individual, however obscure, under the laws of nations, is counted a cause of war, though of course humanity would dictate that negotiation should be exhausted to its last principle, prior to so extreme and severe a resort.

According to Mr. Wheaton, the disputes of nations may be terminated by means short of actual war, in the following methods:—

1. By laying an embargo or sequestration on the ships and goods, or other property of the offending nation, found within the territory of the injured state.

2. By taking forcible possession of the thing in controversy, by securing to yourself by force, and refusing to the other nation the enjoyment of the right drawn in question.

3. By exercising the right of vindictive retaliation or of amicable retaliation, by which last the one nation applies in its transactions with the other, the same rule of conduct by which that other is governed under similar circumstances.

4. By making reprisals upon the persons and things belonging to the offending nation, until a satisfaction is made for the alleged injury.

These four rights—that of embargo, attachment, retaliation, and reprisal—have been all drawn largely into use, and are to be commended, inasmuch as they do not involve the worst consequences of war, though they most frequently lead to it. Great Britain laid an embargo upon Dutch property in her ports in 1803, and the United States imposed an embargo several years after, upon all commercial intercourse whatever. We shall recur to these subjects, however, in another place.

War is the last resort. It has the effect of putting all the subjects of one nation in a state of hostility with those of another, and suspends all correspondence or intercourse whatever between them. In former times we have exhibited that the rules of war authorized every-

thing which an enemy might find useful or convenient. The barbarous code of antiquity on this subject has become obsolete. Plunder upon land is no longer tolerated, and the sacking and desolation of towns and cities. Private property is held now to be inviolable, even by an invading army, and if taken at all, only upon full compensation being made. Bonaparte is universally condemned for making spoliations abroad for the purpose of enriching Paris; and he who now destroys private dwellings or public edifices, says Kent, or makes war upon monuments of art and models of taste, violates the modern usages of war, and is sure to meet with indignant resentment and to be held up to the general scorn and detestation of the world. The United States in a treaty with Prussia, concluded on in 1785, went so far as to insert a stipulation, that in case of war between these powers, non-combatants, cultivators of the earth, fishermen, merchants and traders in unarmed ships, artists and mechanics inhabiting towns, should not be disturbed.

The question is somewhat important, whether war must be made by an open and formal declaration. The ancient usage was the herald. The last instance of a herald being sent into the hostile country, is stated to have been in 1635. International law writers differ in respect to the obligations of a public declaration; but usage has been of late years rather against the declaration. The war between England and France in 1778, began in the recall of a minister, and was prosecuted without formal declaration; and so of several other wars between these nations. After the United States had made a formal announcement of hostilities in 1812, they prosecuted them without delaying a moment for the enemy to receive notice of the declaration.

On the breaking out of war, the interesting inquiry comes up—what is the position occupied by the persons and property of the enemy found within the jurisdiction of the country? Magna Charta laid down the liberal rule six hundred years ago, "that if our merchants be safe and well treated by them, theirs should have the same favor at our hands." This was a rule for the advantage of trade. Vattel is strongly against any right to detain the persons or property of those subjects of the enemy who came into the country under the sanction of public faith. Other writers, however, disagree. The subject is now almost universally provided for in treaties. By ours with Colombia and Venezuela the persons and effects of strangers may be withdrawn; by that with Chili, they are even allowed to remain in the country and continue their trade. The act of Congress, 1798, says Chancelor Kent, authorizes the President, in case of war, to direct the conduct to be observed toward the subjects of the hostile nations found within the United States, and being aliens, and upon what security their residence should be permitted; and it is declared, in relation to those who were to depart, that they should be allowed such reasonable time as might be consistent with public safety for the recovery, disposal, and removal of their goods and effects for their departure. We have none of us forgotten the famous alien and sedition laws of 1798, which provoked the able resolutions of Virginia and Kentucky, and the lofty patriotism of Madison and Jefferson.

The highest authority in the United States, however, the Supreme

Court, in pronouncing upon the case of Brown, which grew out of the last war, took the position that confiscation of the enemy's effects found in the country, as a matter of course followed on the declaration of hostilities, and that the rule was not at all affected by certain instances of a milder usage between nations. Congress might, to be sure, exempt the property and goods of aliens from seizure, but without such exemption they could not be removed from the country until the termination of war. It rested in the pleasure of Congress whether or not they should be confiscated. It may be very much questioned whether the severe doctrines of the Supreme Court could be sustained should the question occur again. The best political writers are in opposition to them, and Vattel particularly observes, that the sovereign declaring war can neither detain those subjects of the enemy who were within his dominions at the time of the declaration, nor their effects. They came into the country on the public faith. By permitting them to enter his territories and continue there, he has tacitly promised them liberty and perfect security for their return.

In the case of debts due, at the breaking out of hostilities, by the subjects of the one nation to those of the other, the ancient rule was to subject them to confiscation. The principle may now be considered obsolete. The last instance we have of such confiscation was in the French and English wars of 1793, but on the return of peace the sequestrations were removed, and the rights of either party restored. The treaty made between England and the United States in 1795, declared that it was unjust and impolitic to confiscate debts contracted in good faith, and that none of these shall ever, in the event of war, or national differences, be sequestered or forfeited. After the American revolution, the debts due before its commencement were conceived to be revived, and all the rights of suit necessary to their recovery. All of our late treaties with foreign governments stipulate against the right of confiscation. Chancelor Kent thinks himself justified in assuming as a principle of public law, so far as the same is understood and declared by the highest judicial authorities in this country, that it rests in the discretion of the legislature of the Union, by a special law for that purpose, to confiscate debts contracted by our citizens and due to the enemy; but as it is asserted on the same authority, this right is contrary to universal practice, it may therefore well be considered as a naked and impolitic right, condemned by the enlightened conscience and judgment of modern times.

Prisoners taken in war are to be treated with kindness and moderation. Their mutual exchange is generally provided for, and they are frequently permitted to return to their own country upon condition of not serving again during the continuance of the war. Breach of faith in this particular meets with the severest punishment.

It has not been considered piracy for vessels without commission to attack the property of the enemy at sea, and capture it. But such a proceeding does not vest the property in the captors, transferring it only to their government. This usage appears to be greatly inconsistent with the refinement of modern ages.

Privateering constitutes a separate chapter in the laws of nations.

Every nation has resorted to this method of destroying the commerce of the enemy, without questioning for a moment their right of doing so. Many have affected to consider it, after all, but legalized piracy, and calculated to blunt the finer feelings of justice and sear the heart to all noble sentiments. We are at a loss ourselves to understand how the occupation of a mere privateer can be reconciled with any of the higher feelings of our nature, an occupation whose whole end and purpose is pillage upon the high seas and pecuniary gain out of the fiercest bloodshed. The love of country, patriotic self-devotion and ardor, have no place in such concerns; and it is common enough to find foreigners under the flag of a belligerent power, preying upon the commerce of nations with whom their own is at peace. Cases such as these, we have been told, were intended by the present administration to be treated as piracy, had a war eventuated from the Mexican difficulties. But though such a course would be consonant with the principles of humanity, it would not be sanctioned, we think, by the rules of nations as now understood. It cannot be doubted, that men estimable in other respects have been found in the pursuit of privateering; but exceptions of this kind are rare, and could not, we think, occur again, in the improved moral sense of mankind. Like the good Sir Matthew Hale sitting in condemnation of witchcraft, and sentencing those guilty of it to the flames, their excuse can only be found in the peculiar circumstances of their times. Privateering was introduced into England about the time of Elizabeth, and caused great destruction to the fleets of the Spanish nation, with whom she was at war. Sir Francis Drake's privateering would in our times be counted piracy. The transition from the privateer to the pirate is but a step. In the early history of South Carolina, its coasts were infested by this last class of men, who were beaten and captured by Rhett. History tells us that these desperadoes commenced their career as privateers, and that grown wanton from excesses, they could not find it in their heart again to return to private and honest life on the return of peace. We know not how many other such examples there are.

Privateers are in general licensed by their governments and allowed to appropriate the larger portion of their gains to themselves, on giving security that they will observe the rules of war and the rights of neutral nations.

In the war of 1812, the legislature of New York passed an act to encourage privateering associations, by enabling them to form corporate bodies for that avowed purpose. Laudable efforts have frequently been made to put an end to a custom pregnant with so serious and demoralizing tendencies, and calculated so much to embitter and prolong national conflicts. The American and Prussian treaty of 1785 stipulated that in case of war neither party should commission privateers into its service, but the treaty of 1799 between the same governments leaves out the liberal clause. The French authorities in 1792 made a similar but unsuccessful effort to abolish the practice.

The rules of privateering are these:—the captor is responsible for all illegal acts done, and the owners of the vessel separately, to the full amount of the damage. The United States have by law prohibited its citizens to cruise against the property of friendly powers,

and a commission from two governments is regarded in the eyes of nations as conferring upon the privateer the character of a pirate. Enemy's property captured must be brought before a prize court for condemnation, before it changes its ownership. "The condemnation must be pronounced by a prize court of the government of the captor, sitting either in the country of the captor or of his ally. Neutral ports are not intended to be auxiliary to the operations of the power at war; and the law of nations has clearly ordained that the prize court of a belligerent captor cannot exercise jurisdiction in a neutral country." Should it be impossible to carry the property into port, the captor has the power of allowing its ransom by the original owner, for an adequate consideration. The British government has, however, forbidden to its subjects the exercise of the right.

Letters of marque and reprisal are sometimes issued by a country in consequence of certain injuries suffered at the hands of another, which are not of such a nature as to demand a public war. These letters confer the right to seize upon the property of the nation against which they are issued, wherever it can be found, and are regulated by the treaty stipulations of most countries. Though frequently leading to war, they cannot be considered as a war measure.

A passport is frequently granted by the authority of a belligerent sovereign, and in relation to the persons to whom it is granted, interrupts the usual effects of war. A license to the subjects of the enemy still to continue their trade with the belligerent, is a privilege of similar character. It is said to be the resumption of a state of peace to the extent of the license, and that the act rests in the sovereign authority of the state, which is alone competent to decide how far considerations of commercial or political expediency in particular cases control the ordinary consequences of war.

A truce or an armistice, is a temporary suspension of hostilities. It sometimes applies only to a town and its besiegers; and we have in history the finest examples of the kind, where both parties for a season indulged with each other the greatest convivialities and friendship. A general truce is one mode of concluding war without a formal treaty, and endures until either party sees fit to terminate it.

The last stage in the progress of war is the treaty of peace. This strikes the arms out of the hands of either party, and restores the relation of friends and brothers. Peace is declared usually among nations by the same authority which declared war—the sovereign. In the United States there is some difference, for while a declaration of war, like every other act of legislation, must be made by the two houses of Congress, with the assent of the President, the treaty-making power is lodged in the hands of the Executive, by and with the consent of the Senate. The House of Representatives might, however, enforce a treaty of peace, by refusing the supplies necessary to conduct the war.

"The effect of a treaty of peace is to put an end to the war. It is an agreement to waive all discussion concerning the respective rights of the parties, and to bury in oblivion all the original causes of the war. It leaves the contracting parties without any right of committing hostility for the very cause which kindled the war, or for what has passed in the course of it. A treaty of peace leaves everything in the state

in which it finds it, if there be no express stipulation on the subject." The breach of treaty by one of the parties is a justifiable cause of war, if the other elects to consider it so. The United States declared all the treaties with France void in 1798, on account of the frequent violations of them by the French authorities.

Treaties are not considered as *ipso facto* at end on the recurrence of hostilities. Many are particularly intended to regulate prospective wars, and of course endure with equal force through them all. These are counted *transitory conventions*, and are consonant to the dictates of sound and enlightened reason. The language of the British diplomatists in 1815, that Great Britain knows of no exception to the rule, that all treaties are put an end to by a subsequent war between the same parties, was certainly strong, but cannot be considered as applying to the transitory conventions as above explained.

V. To this head of our essay we had appropriated the effects which war is understood to create between the belligerents themselves, but this branch of the subject fell in so naturally under the last division, that we find, upon examination, we have already very nearly exhausted it. There remain, however, yet a few principles which can properly be discussed here.

It sometimes happens that a nation becomes involved in war only to the extent of certain assistance in the way of arms, ammunition, money, or troops, which, according to treaty stipulations it has been compelled to furnish to one of the belligerents, on the breaking out of hostilities. Such a treaty is what is denominated an offensive and defensive one. There are numerous instances of these treaties recorded in history, but the one with which we are most familiar is that concluded on between France and the United States of America, in 1778. By the terms of this treaty on the breaking out of a strictly *defensive* war in either of these countries, the other was bound to contribute its aid and countenance; and the United States fully guarantied to France all of her American possessions. The French authorities were greatly incensed at our remaining neutral during their wars of the latter part of the eighteenth century, considering that we were bound to assist them upon the faith of the convention of 1778. Had these wars been entirely defensive on the part of that government, the reasoning would have been strictly correct, and neutrality upon our part in the last degree culpable. But the fact was the very reverse, and the insane revolutionists were actually engaged in offensive hostilities against the whole of Europe. Some of the French papers have lately, with equal ignorance and spleen, been throwing this into our faces as if the fault were not really with their own country.

A similar treaty was entered into between Britain and Hague, in 1717; but the States-General of Holland refusing to fulfil the terms of it many years afterwards, fortified themselves by the following declarations to the world :

1. That Great Britain was the aggressor in the war, and that unless she had been first attacked by France, the contingency contemplated in the treaty, the *casus fœderis*, did not arise.

2. That admitting that France was the aggressor in Europe, yet it was only in consequence of the hostilities previously commenced in

America, which were expressly exempted from the terms of the guaranties.

The treaties which we are considering, have the general title of treaties of alliance. They do not bind a nation to any participation in an unjust war, nor would it be incumbent upon either of the parties to furnish assistance to the other if the condition of its own affairs at home were such as would render such assistance dangerous or suicidal. The extreme cases are always excepted from the operation of the treaty, as for instance, where the case is a hopeless one which requires aid, or where the giving of succor would "expose the state itself to imminent danger and peril." One of the most remarkable instances of a nation's being a party to hostilities only to the extent of the quota of troops furnished, is to be found in the Hessian soldiers which were supplied by some of the German princes at a certain rate per head, to serve in the British wars for the subjugation of America.

As a nation may be only to a certain extent party to hostilities, so may an individual. The hostile character may exist, it is said, merely as to commercial purposes, and hostility may attach only to the person as a temporary enemy, or it may attach only to property of a particular description. What we mean is this—that even a citizen of a neutral country may, in his person or effects, become a party to hostilities conducted between belligerents. We give a single case in the language of Chancelor Kent: the enemy's lands are supposed to be a great source of his wealth, and perhaps the most solid foundation of his power, and whoever owns or possesses lands in an enemy's country, though he may in fact reside elsewhere, and be in every other respect a neutral or friend, must be taken to have incorporated himself with the nation so far as he is a holder of the soil; and the produce of that soil is held to be enemy's property, independent of the personal residence or occupation of the owner.

If a subject of a neutral power has made a settlement or attained a domicil in a belligerent country, for commercial or any other purposes, he is regarded by the other belligerent as an enemy, to the extent of his transactions in that country. The same rule applies where the subject of a nation at war has an establishment or domicil in a neutral country, and his transactions by virtue of this settlement and to the extent of it, do not become infected with the hostile character. The principle is capable of this general expression: "If one resides in a belligerent country, his property is liable to capture, as enemy's property; and if he resides in a neutral country, he enjoys all the privileges and is subjected to all the inconveniences of the neutral trade."

The proof of domicil is necessarily very strictly enjoined where these privileges are to be exacted or disabilities incurred. When the residence is, however, fixed, a periodical absence or an occasional visit to the native country is said not to disturb it. This national character imparted by domicil or residence, may be thrown off at the will of the party, by leaving the country, with an intention of remaining away. One connecting himself with a commercial or other house in an enemy's territory, cannot be protected with reference to, and to the amount of that connection, from the rules of war, though he be

himself a citizen of a neutral country. To the extent of his copartnership he becomes a party to the war. Such a partnership would not, however, under the laws of nations, be allowed between a subject of one of the belligerents and a subject of the other.

Sometimes there is an intended partial interruption of the state of war, by one of the hostile parties granting to a neutral the right of trading with its colonies during the war. This, it would seem, does not prevent the neutral from imbibing the belligerent character, and subjecting his trade to the risks of capture by the enemy. There was a rule laid down on this subject, which is characterized as the rule of 1756. We extract it from Kent:

1. That if the coasting or colonial trade reserved by the permanent policy of a nation to its own subjects and vessels, be opened to neutrals during war, the act proceeds from the pressure of the naval force of the enemy, and to obtain a relief from that pressure. The neutral who interposes to relieve the belligerent under such circumstances, rescues him from that condition to which the arms of the enemy had reduced him—restores him to those resources which had been wrested from him by the arms of his adversary, and deprives that adversary of the advantages which successful war had given him. This the opposing belligerent pronounces a departure from neutrality, and an interference in the war to his prejudice.

2. If the trade be not opened by law, the neutral employed in a trade reserved by the enemy to his own vessels, identifies himself with that enemy, and assumes his character.

The rule is stringently enforced in Great Britain, and appears to have been first introduced by her. The United States has protested against its application as unjust, and calculated to enhance the evils of war to an extent unnecessarily great. Mr. Monroe's letter to Lord Mulgrave in 1805, characterized it as an attempt to introduce a new principle in the laws of nations. The trade of neutrals with all the ports of an enemy was perfectly lawful so far as it was not in contraband articles or in violation of the laws of blockade. A state had a perfect right, whether in peace or in war, to grant the freedom of its ports and trade to another state, without interference from any quarter. The question of course cannot be considered as settled, and would no doubt lead to much perplexity in the event of a future war.

A neutral vessel sailing under the flag of the enemy or with his license, cannot expect to retain the character of neutrality. Both ship and cargo become lawfully subject to capture and confiscation. And this principle, says Mr. Wheaton, is applicable not only to a license protecting a direct commercial intercourse with the enemy, but to a voyage to a country in alliance with her, or even to a neutral port; for the very act of purchasing or procuring the license from the enemy, is an intercourse with him, prohibited by the laws of war; and even supposing it to be gratuitously issued, it must be for the special purpose of furthering the enemy's interests by securing supplies necessary to prosecute the war, to which the subjects of the belligerent's state have no right to lend their aid by sailing under these documents of protection. The rule we are discussing goes even to the extent of declaring that goods or property which had a hostile character at the commencement of the voyage, cannot change that character by as-

signment during its prosecution. So severe are the doctrines in relation to the carrying trade.

VI. We come to consider lastly, the rights and duties of neutral nations. Neutrality is the relation sustained by one country at peace toward several others engaged in war, and is based upon the principle that in the quarrels of friends, a mutual friend should remain inactive, unless his aid can be of equal advantage to both the parties. Every preference is of course excluded. While all the world else is involved in war, it belongs to the sovereignty and independence of any state that wills it, to preserve an entire neutrality and peace. Of course this condition has its duties and responsibilities, which are very severe. We shall endeavor to enumerate them.

During the wars which grew out of the French revolution, the United States preserved a perfect neutrality. Whatever favors were shown to one of the belligerents, were equally shown to all the others. We take the case of the admission of public armed ships into our ports to refit, repair, etc. In relation to the admission of privateers and prizes, the treaty made with France in 1778 prevented our allowing admission to those of any other country, of which Great Britain made frequent complaint. The case was one which we mentioned in the earlier sheets of our article, of a nation's perfect right to form in peace a treaty favoring one nation more than another, without cause of animosity. The exercise of the right ought to be tempered with great discretion.

Hostilities cannot be carried on in neutral territory, or within neutral jurisdiction. A neutral may, at discretion, refuse to allow the passage of foreign troops through his territories. A capture made upon neutral ground is void. Sir William Scott decreed the restitution of a ship captured by his countrymen from the French, within three miles of the islands at the mouth of the Mississippi river, the capture being illegal for breach of neutral rights. A neutral port offers a refuge to the ships of either of the belligerents escaping from the pursuit of the other, and they may no longer be molested until again fairly out at sea. The United States went so far as to ordain in 1793, "that if the armed vessel of one nation should depart from our jurisdiction, no armed vessel being within the same port and belonging to an adverse belligerent power, should depart until within twenty-four hours after the former, without being deemed to have violated the laws of nations."

Vattel lays down the two broad rules of neutrality:

1. To give no assistance where there is no previous stipulation to give it; nor voluntarily to furnish troops, arms, ammunition, or anything of direct use in war.
2. In whatever does not relate to the war, the neutral must not refuse to one of the parties, merely because he is at war with the other, what is granted to that other.

The arming or equipping of vessels, or enlisting men in neutral countries by either belligerent, is declared to be unlawful now by the general sense of nations. The United States in 1793, laid down the position strongly, and was not long afterward imitated by Great Britain. The example of America, says Mr. Wheaton, was referred to in Parliament, "as vindicating the justice and policy of prevent-

ing the subjects of a neutral country from enlisting in the service of any belligerent power, and of prohibiting the equipment in its ports of armaments in aid of such power."

Has either of the parties in a state of war the right to capture the property of their enemy found in the vessel of a neutral power beyond the jurisdiction of the neutral territory? The general usage of nations, without stipulation to the contrary by treaty, is in favor of the right of capture, and of search, incident and necessary to it. The Empress of Russia in 1780, proclaimed in the Baltic code of neutrality the very opposite principle, viz:—"that all effects belonging to the subjects of the belligerent powers, should be looked upon as free on board of neutral ships, except only such goods as were contraband." The United States, France, Sweden, Denmark, Prussia, Germany, Holland, Spain, Portugal and Naples acceded at once to the doctrines of the code. Britain held out for the doctrine of capture, and having the maritime supremacy, her influence was sufficient to produce the withdrawal of each European nation from the league.

That free ships should make free goods, appears to us as reasonable and just as that neutral ports and territory should protect enemy's property until it is withdrawn. All the civilization of the present age is on the side of this equitable rule, but the laws and usages of nations, as we said before, are against it. The United States have over and over admitted the British doctrine of capture, and it remains in full force among nations. The custom of late has been to stipulate in treaties that free ships should make free goods; the Ottoman Porte, according to Chancelor Kent, being the first to abandon the ancient and sterner rule. Thus has Europe learned liberality and moderation from the Mahomedan and the Turk.

In what manner are neutral goods found in the ships of an enemy entitled to be treated according to the rules of war? We quote the highest authority in reply: "The two distinct propositions that enemy's goods found on board a neutral ship may be lawfully seized as prize of war, and that the goods of a neutral found on board of an enemy's vessel were to be restored, have been explicitly incorporated into the jurisprudence of the United States, and declared by the Supreme Court to be founded in the law of nations." The neutral flag, says Mr. Wheaton, constitutes no protection to an enemy's property, and a belligerent flag communicates no hostile character to neutral property.

The remaining sheets of our already extended article will be restricted to an investigation of the two great departments of public law in relation to the carrying trade and contraband of war.

1. *The Carrying Trade.* We have already laid down the position that the territory of a neutral affords ample protection to the person and property of the citizen of a belligerent country. In relation to the neutral flag on the ocean, we affirmed that it did not by the laws of nations, confer any protection to the property of the enemy which it covered. It remained enemy's property still, and liable to seizure, though the neutral forfeited nothing by carrying it. We said also that the goods of a friend, though found in an enemy's vessel, lost nothing of its sacred and inviolable character. The friendly goods must be surrendered to their owner in case of the capture of

the hostile vessel. These principles apply as well to vessels of war as to ordinary merchantmen, though a distinction has been set up between them which would give a hostile character even to the goods of a friend if entrusted to the charge of a public armed ship of the enemy. But then an armed ship is not liable to search for enemy's goods.

We use the term carrying trade a little out of the ordinary signification by applying it to the commerce of all neutral countries during a state of war between some of their neighbors. That every nation has a right to remain at peace, and continue its usual avocations and commerce without being interrupted, we characterize a political axiom. It has a right to carry on trade with our neighbor, though we are at war with that neighbor, or with us, if on terms of good understanding. On the same principle it may undertake to carry the property of either of the belligerent powers with whom it is at peace, without giving cause of complaint, or may entrust its own property to their care and keeping.

Many efforts have been made to remodel the laws of nations in these particulars, by rendering the property of an enemy inviolable, if found in the vessel of a friendly power, or in other words to introduce the doctrine, as it is termed, of "*free ships make free goods.*" Thus admitting a perfect freedom of trade to every nation in the world not engaged in war, and preventing the odious exercise of the right of search, which is so frequently resorted to for the purpose of discovering and seizing upon enemy's property. We shall rapidly sketch the history of these proposed modifications.

We alluded to the liberality of the Turkish treaties upon this point. In 1662, a treaty was agreed upon between the United Provinces and France, which went to the full extent of protecting with a friendly flag whatever goods it might be employed to cover. The stipulation went farther, and we think too far, in making a hostile flag impart its character also to everything under it. The two doctrines are not necessarily connected. The first we conceive is reasonable and just, and the latter impolitic and absurd. England granted to Holland, soon after, a similar privilege: we say granted a similar privilege, because the Dutch had almost a monopoly of the carrying trade in their hands at that time, and were to be most benefited by the stipulation. The treaties of Utrecht in 1717, Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, and Paris in 1763, all went to the extent of admitting the character of the ship to give law to the goods it carried.

In the European wars which grew out of the American revolution, the Empress of Russia declared to the world in 1780, the principles of neutrality which she understood to be admitted by the laws of war. We have alluded to this already. One of the principles was that "free ships make free goods," without admitting the contrary, that "enemy ships make enemy goods." The declaration was subscribed to by numerous powers. Great Britain held out against the doctrine, and prevailed.

On the declaration of peace in 1783, the American war having closed, France, England and Spain, in Congress at Versailles, revived the treaty of Utrecht, and admitted soon after to the full, the two maxims of free ships and free goods, enemy ships and enemy goods.

During the career of Napoleon Bonaparte, however, all Europe appeared to have forgotten its principles, and everything which had been gained for truth, justice and moderation, was lost in the chaotic disorders. Decrees and counter-decrees were of every-day occurrence, which regarded little enough, as the frequent protestations of the United States will evince, the duties of belligerents and the rights of neutrals. In the disorders of the times, our own government thought it advisable to put an end to its commerce altogether.

We quote from Wheaton:—"During the protracted wars of the French revolution, all the belligerent powers began by discarding in practice not only the principles of the armed neutrality, but even the generally received maxims of international law, by which the rights of neutral commerce in times of war had been previously regulated. Russia, says Von Van Martens, made common cause with Great Britain and with Prussia, to induce Denmark and Sweden to renounce all intercourse with France, and especially to prohibit their carrying goods to the country. The incompatibility of this pretension with the principles established by Russia in 1780, was veiled by the pretext that in a war, like that against Revolutionary France, the rights of neutrality did not come in question. France, on her part, revived the severity of her ancient prize code, by decreeing not only the capture and condemnation of the goods of her enemies found on board neutral vessels, but even of the vessels themselves laden with goods of British growth, produce and manufacture. But in the farther progress of the war, the principles which had formed the basis of the armed neutrality of the Northern powers in 1780, were revived by a new maritime confederacy between Russia, Denmark, and Sweden, formed in 1800, to which Prussia acceded. This league was soon dissolved by the naval power of Great Britain and the death of the Emperor Paul; and the principle in question was expressly relinquished by Russia by the convention signed at St. Petersburg in 1801, between that power and the British government, and subsequently acceded to by Denmark and Sweden. In 1807, in consequence of the stipulations contained in the treaty of Tilsit, between Russia and France, a declaration was issued by the Russian court, in which the principles of the armed neutrality were proclaimed anew, and the convention of 1801 was annulled by the Emperor Alexander. In 1812 a treaty of alliance against France was signed by Great Britain and Russia, but no convention respecting the freedom of neutral commerce and navigation has been since concluded between these two powers."

The harsher rule of European law in relation to neutral commerce, has been declared on numerous occasions in the Supreme Court of the United States. During the revolution it was not questioned, though Congress issued an ordinance on the principles of the armed neutrality—protection to the neutral carrying trade, upon condition that these principles were observed by other belligerent powers. In 1785 we agreed with Prussia that free ships should make free goods; but in 1799 a new treaty contained the following clause: "Experience having proved that the principle adopted in the twelfth article of the treaty of 1785, according to which free ships make free goods, has not been sufficiently respected during the two last wars, and especially

in that which still continues, the two contracting parties propose after the return of a general peace, to agree, either separately between themselves, or jointly with other powers alike interested, to concert with the great maritime powers of Europe such arrangements and such permanent principles as may serve to consolidate the liberty and safety of neutral navigation and commerce in future wars." In the war of 1812, the United States again admitted the doctrines which had governed them throughout the revolution; but in all of our late treaties with South American states, as before observed, the more liberal policy is adopted. In these it is declared, "that the rule of public law, that the property of an enemy is liable to capture in the vessels of a friend, has no foundation in national right, and though it be the established usage of nations, rests entirely on the abuse of force." We may, therefore, correctly conclude, that in the progress of commerce and enlightenment, the severe rule will be entirely abolished.

2. *Contraband.* There is a great and just restriction upon neutral commerce by the laws of nations. Neutrals are not allowed to furnish either of the belligerents with stores, goods or merchandise, which are or may be directly useful for purposes of war: such goods are entitled contraband. The principle is, that a friend is guilty of a dereliction of duty who furnishes modes of offence or defense to either of two other friends, or to both of them, engaged in hostilities with each other. The rule appears to stand upon a foundation of sound reason and justice, and has never, that we know of, been called into question.

To give a clear enumeration of the various articles characterized as contraband of war, would be no easy undertaking. Much, however, will depend upon the nature of the war carried on. Grotius makes a distinction between things only useful in war and things useful in peace as well as war. The first class neutrals are prohibited from furnishing the enemy. The second class they are only prohibited in certain cases, viz.: if carried to a besieged town, camp or port. The same doctrine is laid down by Bynkershoeck. Vattel is less precise. Valin and Pothier, in relation to provisions in particular, declare them not to be contraband unless carried to besieged ports. Naval stores of all kinds are regarded as clearly contraband. The United States have always considered materials for building or fitting out ships of war as contraband; but the produce of the soil and labor of the country, such as corn, flour, etc., as essentially free, unless carried to places actually invested by the enemy. Our treaty with Great Britain of 1794, did not settle the point with relation to provisions, the same having been contested by that government. The treaty only provided that if such should at any time be seized as contraband by the usages of nations, a fair compensation for them should be made to the owners.

In the treaties between Britain and France during the middle and latter parts of the eighteenth century, munitions of war are included in the list of contraband; but goods, of whatever nature, in an unwrought state, are excluded; though, perhaps, they might be capable of being worked up into such munitions. The difficulties between Britain and the Northern powers on the subject, were settled by the

convention of 1801, which confined contraband to munitions of war, and left naval stores free, with the qualification above expressed, of course, of not being sent to an invested territory. A distinction is generally made between articles which are the growth of a country exporting them and those which are not, the former being entitled to greater favor. So also of articles in the rough state, as hemp, bar iron, etc.

In 1793 Great Britain issued an order of instructions to her cruisers, empowering them to "stop all vessels laden wholly or in part with corn, flour, or meal, bound to any port in France, and to send them into a British port to be purchased by government." This was attempted to be justified by the peculiar position of France at the time, but was resisted by the United States, Sweden and Denmark. Our government declared that the proceeding was unwarranted by the laws of nations, and a clear violation of the rights of neutrals. "If any nation whatever had the right to shut against our produce all the ports of the earth, except her own and those of her friends, she might shut these also, and thus prevent altogether the export of that produce." This was the ground taken by Mr. Jefferson, in his letter to Thos. Pinckney.

In 1794 Britain admitted with the United States, that contraband included all arms and implements, and also timber for ship building; tar or rosin, copper in sheets, sails, hemp and cordage. In the following year the former government extended the list so as to include provisions, if carried to French ports; the legality of which proceeding was called into immediate question. The defense was—

1. That the order was made when there was a prospect of reducing the enemy to terms by famine, and that in such a state of things, provisions bound to the ports of the enemy became so far contraband as to justify Great Britain in seizing them, upon the terms of paying the invoice price, with reasonable profit, etc., etc.
2. That the order was justified by necessity, the British nation being at that time threatened with a scarcity of the articles directed to be seized.

If the vessel of a neutral be found to contain a mixed freight of contraband and free goods, what treatment would she be entitled to expect? Formerly the very presence of contraband infected the vessel and everything in it, and the whole was forfeited, by the rules of war, to the captor. The rule now is, that contraband infects the whole cargo, but does not infect the vessel in which it is contained, unless in peculiar cases of fraud. Carrying dispatches of the enemy would be one of these cases. Our treaties with South American states extend the infection to nothing beyond the very contraband goods. As these treaties give what may be considered as the sense of our government upon the subject, and what it is aiming universally to establish, they are of the highest importance. Chancelor Kent, in a note, gives the list of contraband which they admit: "munitions of war, and other things made up in a military form and for a military use; and cavalry horses with their furniture; and all materials manufactured, prepared and formed expressly for the purposes of war either by sea or land."

The last subject to which our attention will be called on the present

occasion, is the law of *blockade*, which legally restricts neutral trade. All writers on public law agree that the breach of a blockade, by the entrance of any articles whatever, is a serious invasion of the rights of belligerents, and entitled to severe retribution. Vattel thinks that the neutral in such a case deserves to be treated as an enemy. Certain it is, the ship and cargo guilty of a breach of blockade, are at once confiscated and lost to the original owner.

The law of blockade, however, is entrenched within severe provisions and regulations. The blockade must be clear and indisputable; there must be a sufficient force to cut off all communication with the interdicted port or place. The neutral must have had notice of the blockade, and there must be a clear case of breach. The two most official definitions of a blockaded port which have been made, is that of the British and Russian treaty of 1801: "that where there is by the disposition of the power which attacks it with ships, stationary or sufficiently near, an evident danger in entering;" and that of the American and Chilian treaty of 1832: "a port actually attacked by a belligerent force capable of preventing the entry of the neutral." A neutral vessel is allowed to leave a blockaded port without danger of being arrested, if her cargo was purchased in good faith and loaded before the commencement of the blockade. Though a port may be blockaded by sea, if there be no land force assisting at the same time, the neutral commerce by land with it incurs no guilt or liability to forfeiture.

The neutral must have notice of the blockade. Notice to his government is a notice to all of its subjects, whether particular notice be brought home to them or not. The very act of sailing to a port, due notice of the blockade of which has been given, incurs the guilt of forfeiture. It is not lawful for a neutral to be found in the vicinities of a blockaded port, so near that on some contingency he might gain ingress without difficulty. The neutral is in every instance bound to prove his neutrality when claiming its privileges. He must have all the necessary papers from his government, such as passports, sea-letter, muster-roll, log-book, charter party, invoice, bill of lading, etc., etc.

The whole subject of blockade may be summed up in the language of a master: "The judicial decisions in England and in this country have given great precision to the law of blockade, by the application of it to particular cases, and by the extent and clearness and equity of their illustrations. They are distinguished likewise for general coincidence and harmony in their principles. All the cases admit that the neutral must be chargeable with knowledge, either actual or constructive, of the existence of the blockade, and with an intent and with some attempt to break it, before he is to suffer the penalty of a violation of it. The evidence of that intent and of the overt act will greatly vary, according to circumstances; and the conclusion to be drawn from those circumstances will depend, in some degree, upon the character and judgments of the prize courts; but the true principles which ought to govern, have rarely been a matter of dispute. The fact of clearing out or sailing for a blockaded port, is in itself innocent, unless it be accompanied with knowledge of the blockade. Such a vessel, not possessed of such previous knowledge, is to be

first warned of the fact, and a subsequent attempt to enter constitutes the breach. This was the provision in the treaty with England, in 1794, and it has been declared in other cases, and is considered to be a correct exposition of the laws of nations."

Art. II.—AGRICULTURAL AND MANUFACTURING PROSPECTS OF THE SOUTH AND WEST.

The general attention which has been so manifestly aroused throughout the South to the subject of our present investigation, affords a pleasing proof that a change for the better is coming over us, and that the proverbial apathy of the planter is yielding to a proper appreciation of what constitutes the real basis of our national prosperity. Considering the magnitude of interests involved, and the strength of prejudice hitherto opposed by the perverse direction of public opinion, scarce a parallel can be found where so much vantage-ground has been lost, for the want of the concert and union of the energies of the cotton planters of the South. All the alarming indications of a market tending downward to a point that precludes an adequate remuneration, have as yet failed in developing any efficient action toward remedying the evil. It is true some public-spirited intentions have been manifested by leading agriculturists in some of the States, in proposing and advising plans of relief, but these intentions have been permitted to pass away in merely fugitive expressions of opinion in the public press; and the influence of these individual efforts, in effecting as yet any desirable results in the great work of reform, has not been properly seconded by that powerful instrument of good or evil—the press; while, on the one hand, in its attempts at developing the capabilities of the country, we find its columns pregnant with elaborate essays on commerce and manufactures—on the other, in questions concerning the merit of politicians, an avidity of discussion is evinced in exciting the public mind, as if the existence of the State depended on the issue. If a tythe of the enthusiasm that is evinced on these subjects was bestowed in sustaining the dignity of agriculture, and in illustrating its creative powers, it would be doing far more service to the State, as well as to those who constitute seven-eighths of every civilized community. Much as the wealth and prosperity of a nation may be advanced by commerce and manufactures, still we are constrained to look upon agriculture as its source and foundation; and so far as those who are engaged in this pursuit excel others in numbers, so also must their efforts affect the general prosperity of our common country. In connection with this view of the subject, though we do not on the present occasion propose invoking the patronage of the Federal Government, we cannot permit the fact to pass unnoticed, the reproachful fact—the total want of legislative encouragement of agricultural interests in the South by State endowments. Hence the mortifying disparity in the march of improvement between the North and South, exhibited in the increase and development of their internal resources. No stim-

ulus of that kind exists to arouse the energies of the southern agriculturist that incited a Buel and a Sir Arthur Young, by their influence and exertions, to elevate the standard of farming in their respective countries by reducing the culture of the soil to a science. In the field of enterprise ample means for experiment must be afforded on this subject. It has been truly said, "men must be spoken to in the language of dollars and cents, and this can only be afforded by legislative bounty, in the shape of premiums, for excelling in the different branches of their business." Commerce, manufactures, and navigation, have all been benefited by legislative aid; but the languishing and depressed interests of agriculture do not need it. The vaulting political aspirant will dilate upon every interest and measure save that of those who are justly termed the bone and sinew of our country. It is high time for us to show the strength of the material we are made of. The Legislature of Tennessee has spoken in this wise: "While most important State and federal elections have been and are now made to turn upon the sentiments and opinions of candidates in relation to the propriety and impropriety of promoting this or that great man to some high office, nothing is said and no test is made on this important subject; while the whole people are highly excited upon the best and safest method of keeping the money of the people, nothing is said about the primary point of making it successfully. We have certainly commenced at the wrong end—our steps should be retraced. Let the people bring up the slumbering energies of the agriculturist, and we feel well assured that they have only to ask in earnest, and demand as those having authority, and the legislature will do all that should be asked of them in this cause." It has been forcibly proclaimed in a sister State, well styled the Empire State, for she has led the van in every laudable enterprise, "that all the farmers should rise as one man, and insist that the science of good husbandry, and the science of keeping property, shall be taught in all the common schools." If it be an undeniable fact that agriculture constitutes the business of so large a proportion of every community, and is the ultimate source of all national power and greatness, who can estimate the vast amount of every species of improvement in cultivation, or the results of individual exertions, stimulated by the adoption of this fostering policy. Hence, in tracing the history of the best systems of agriculture that distinguish different countries, it is found that the first decided advances were made by men who stood foremost in the enterprise of prosecuting with success the means best calculated to increase their wealth, influence and prosperity.

In elaborating thus it will be perceived that we feel a pressing necessity to respond directly in some tangible form to the cries and lamentations of distress that come up from the teeming fields of the cotton planter; and in the first presentation of this part of the subject, the question is naturally suggested—Why is it the cry of distress is heard emanating from teeming fields? The answer is ready: In the present attitude of the affairs of the world, among all the other productive classes of the human family, the cotton planter stands a unit. In the production of his favorite staple he has completely baffled the famous theory of the philosophical Malthus, and

has so seriously encroached on the laws that regulate the increase of the human family, as to provoke a general conspiracy to drive him from the laudable calling of a producer to that of a consumer; and with the "eye of sorrow" looking on him he is not even permitted, conformably to the Divine command, to luxuriate quietly under his own vine and fig tree, but is doomed to the sad alternative of permitting his golden fleece either to mildew on his hands, or send it abroad as an object of charity to the pauper laborers of Europe. Unlike the northern farmer, he has no flourishing manufactories by his side, affording him a liberal market for his products, and at the same time furnishing him with all necessary fabrics at reasonable prices. Still less favorably does his condition compare with that of the sugar planter on our extreme south, who, with the monopoly he enjoys, is reaping a rich harvest of wealth—but he exhibits a solitary and humiliating example; in the midst of a superabundance of the most valuable commodity in the world, he bids fair to beggar himself by the folly of over-stocking all his customers. Extend the parallel still farther between the manufacturers and the cotton growers, and we find that the profits of the one have been greatly increased at the expense of the labor of the other. "The statistics of the Lowell manufacturers" state the "average wages of females, clear of board," to be $91 per year, and the average wages of men about $210, prices of labor far exceeding anything that would be justified by the present prices of cotton for laborers on southern plantations.

This unfortunate condition of the planters of the South has not been entirely the result of natural causes. The present crisis under which they labor, and which has been brought about by that unerring law that regulates the exchangeable commodities of all the commercial world, most clearly demonstrates that the culture of cotton as the great staple of our country, and the chief source of our national and individual wealth, engendered an inordinate eagerness to devote all the available agricultural labor of the South to its production; and the large surplus of which we now complain, the rapid accumulation of a few brief years, also conclusively demonstrates that the profits realized from its cultivation far out-stripped and defied the competition of any other agricultural staple. Besides, its intrinsic value over any other commodity in the universality of its use secured for it a monoply to foreign markets. So that the southern devotee to his favorite staple, if he would be content to abide by that just moral law of compensation, has not much reason to murmur in the sudden curtailment of the profits of his labor. The history of the growth of cotton shows that it has increased with a rapidity, and to an amount most truly astonishing. From one million of pounds in 1787, it had increased to near 800 millions in 1844. The quantity exported in 1792 amounted to one hundred and fifty thousand pounds. In 1844 the exports are swelled to the enormous quantity of 600 millions of pounds.

The increase and growth of its manufacture has also been very rapid. In 1790 there was but one small establishment of the kind in the United States, and which contained about 70 spindles. At this time, we presume, without any positive data before us, there are

running at least two millions of spindles. The consumption in manufactures of raw cotton in all Europe in 1803, was estimated at only 60 millions of pounds. At this time it is believed to be 600 millions of pounds. The consumption in the United States is at least 150 millions of pounds. Although the cultivation of cotton was commenced under great embarrassments, there is no other staple known in the annals of agriculture, that has so rapidly acquired a predominating interest in the whole world. In tracing the origin and progress of its cultivation, we are presented with the interesting fact, that for many years South Carolina and Georgia took the lead and held it until about 1838, when, pursuant to the prophetic fulfilment of Dr. Franklin's prediction, the sceptre departed for the West, and has ever since been resting on the States of Mississippi and Alabama. Enterprise, the presiding genius of our people, having settled the country and built up the cities of the Atlantic, seeking for new sources of great wealth, as yet unpopulated and undeveloped, has planted his giant footsteps on the borders of our great valley, with the sure promise that it shall become the great source of national wealth and power.

In this summary view of the cotton planting interests of the South, it will appear that ours is the greatest producing country in the world, and Great Britain is the greatest manufacturing country. Statistical reports show that two-thirds of our exports are carried to England, the balance to France and other markets. How intimately, then, as it regards our sympathy for the great staple of the South, are our interests identified with these foreign markets. It is, therefore, eminently proper to inquire, if as recent experience demonstrates that these foreign markets have ceased to pay us a remunerating price for our principal article of export, whether they or ourselves are most responsible for this change in things.

In the solution of this difficulty, the question directly comes up, has the production of the raw material in our country for the last few years, increased in a ratio disproportioned to its demand or consumption?

To our great disparagement the facts show that we have been guilty of the two-fold folly of overstocking the markets of the world, and at the same time practising a system of husbandry calculated to greatly aggravate the calamity of a diminution of price. From the uncalculating habits acquired during high prices, we seem wholly to have overlooked the important fact, that when the supply of a commodity exceeds the effective demand, the price is diminished, not only in proportion to the excess, but in a still greater proportion. Instead of conforming our domestic economy to the depressed price of our staple commodity, and consulting the laws of thrift and good husbandry, we have been pursuing the exhausting process so disgraceful to the character of our soil and to the dictates of common sense, in purchasing our supplies of meat and bread abroad. It is difficult to comprehend how it happens that a class of men sufficiently intelligent to understand their own interests, should so recklessly persevere in a course calculated to jeopard the rewards of their most profitable branch of industry. If we consult the experience of those States where it has been the unvarying practice of the planters to invest their surplus cap-

ital in more *land* and *negroes*, instead of indications of agricultural prosperity, we behold a community involved in pecuniary embarrassment and ruin. This practical admonition that has for some time been developing its disastrous effects, should ere this have produced some salutary results, by inducing the planter to so vary his industrial pursuits as to remedy not only the over-production of cotton, but to produce an abundant supply of every species of provisions required for the consumption of the plantation.

In this stage of the examination of the subject, the question most properly comes up—what shall be done? What is the true remedy for relieving ourselves from the depressed price of our staple commodity? Men of speculative minds have investigated, statesmen have examined, and political philosophers have analyzed all the bearings of this important question. On this occasion we shall respectfully avoid the notice of any political hypothesis about the matter. However strong the opinion is entertained by a large and respectable portion of our citizens, that American industry and American enterprise are stimulated by the present tariff, in building up a home market for our great staple, we forbear throwing the gauntlet for any such issue, and feel prepared to suggest a remedy without interfering with any of the conflicting political theories of the day. In all our researches we have nowhere found data that so clearly and more satisfactorily indicate the true remedy for the present crisis as are contained in the annexed Liverpool Circulars. We there find, from the magnitude of the cotton trade, interwoven as it is with every branch of industry throughout the whole world, affecting all when it is affected, how the caprice of speculation, operating on fallacious estimates, becomes the prolific source of those disastrous revulsions and reactions so prostrating to the interests not only of the cotton planter, but to the inexperienced adventurer, who happens to be drawn into the vortex of the cotton trade. The prominent reasoning in those valuable documents has exclusive reference to the comparative supply and demand—in other words, to the existing stock on hand, and the aggregate estimate of the forthcoming crop. Fatal experience has too frequently demonstrated how very uncertain are the tests on which the cotton dealer relies, and how often the strong faith of the grower has been sadly disappointed by a sudden reduction of price, brought about by the "working-short-time" combinations of the foreign manufacturer. The two last annual Liverpool Circulars are pregnant with emphatic warnings to the American cotton planter—verifying with undisputed data the pernicious consequence of encroaching on the foreign demand by an inordinate crop. Accompanying these salutary warnings, with equal frankness we are told that "high prices tend to make a large crop, and low prices a small one; and this principle applied to the present position of the United States, may lead to such a result hereafter, as may cause us to deplore the unremunerating prices which have been paid, and to look back upon the late heavy fall as ultimately not so universally beneficial to the spinning interests of Great Britain as many now deem it to be."

The remedy for our depressed interests is here revealed to us in language that cannot be mistaken. In the same circular of 1844, we find the following still more impressive language: "But it ought not

to be forgotten, that the planter may keep back his supply, and that finally he may change his object of cultivation from one description of produce to another; it being undeniable, that, without adequate return, he cannot pursue his natural calling. It is true that slave labor is said to be in a different position from free, and to present a difficulty to a certain extent. But the question is only one of degree; and the same reasoning eventually must apply to all cases. If cotton cannot be grown to pay at the present rates, it is assuredly certain it will not be raised; and in spite of every argument to the contrary, it is hardly possible to suppose that, at five cents (which, according to existing quotations, will be the average of the crop) planters will be induced either to grow or sell. The future is involved in doubt; but the preponderance of the reasoning is in favor of cotton, and the evidence of this is daily manifested in increasing confidence and extensive sales." This view of the subject may be said to illuminate the path before us, and very plainly points out to us two sensible and practicable modes of working out our deliverance from the capricious thraldom of a foreign market. The first useful lesson here impressed upon us is, that by regulating the quantum of the cotton crop so as not to exceed the demand, we shall succeed in reclaiming our lost control, and at once invest ourselves with the power that properly belongs to all producers, of regulating the price. The second no less important lesson indicates an alternative somewhat inseparable from the practical adoption of the first. For should the cotton planters of the South resolve on a sudden reduction of the crop, commensurate to the demand, it is manifest some new direction must be given to their surplus capital and industry. This division of labor and investment of capital would obviously tend to the establishment of manufactories among us, the policy of which, we believe, will not be questioned. For what the agriculture of the South at this time especially needs, is a comparative diminution in the growth of cotton, and a wider and more extensive market, both of which will be effectually secured by the introduction of manufacturing establishments among us. It would seem to be a waste of time to attempt to show that such establishments would promote the consumption of our own products, the interests of our own mechanics, the exchange of a portion of our raw material for our own fabrics at a low price, and thereby inducing economy. The objection so triumphantly urged a few years since by our northern brethren to those rival establishments, has become obsolete, by reason of the complete success that has crowned the recent experiments throughout the South. With the raw material growing in juxta-position to manufactories, inviting its conversion into fabrics of more universal use than all others, and thereby creating a third market, we flatter ourselves that this triple alliance will be found to achieve as many if not more philanthropic blessings to the cotton planters of the slaveholding States, than did the Holy Alliance for the crazy monarchies of Europe. With the whole of Europe dependent on us, with two rival markets at home, holding the raw material in our own hands, and the mouths of our population well supplied with meat and bread, who shall gainsay, if we choose to move the lever of Archimedes against the world. The inquiry here instantly arises, why is it that these immense advantages are thus suddenly unfolded,

hitherto unappreciated and unenjoyed? The answer is at hand—the characteristic eagerness of the Southern planter to accumulate, with the knowledge of the fact, as verified by forty years' experience, that he possesses a staple prized above all others in the market of the world. He has been all the while deluded with the dream, that as with the precious metals, those markets would never be heard groaning under its excess. Besides, the large surface of country over which cotton is planted, has presented a serious obstacle to any concert or union of action on the part of the planting community, in devising a plan to counteract the evil tendencies of the market.

Should our views of the proper remedy for the existing evils so much complained of by the planting interests of the South, be deemed sound and acceptable, we are confident in the belief that in their practical prosecution, many important improvements will be realized in our planting economy. A very mischievous error has long prevailed in the economy of the cotton planter, attributable to his predominant desire to make a large crop, as exhibited in its careless preparation for market. Should we resolve on a general curtailment of the cotton crop, the planter, with the opportunity thus afforded of exercising more care in the management of his own crop, would not only greatly enhance its value, but would actually realize a larger income from a less expenditure of labor. Indeed, the exercise of this superior care, were it more universal, would, perhaps, after all, be found the best corrective of the over-production of the crop. For if the superior quality of a moderate crop compensates for the diminished price of a large crop, we are certainly the gainers in a two-fold sense, just by increasing the price proportionably to the diminution of the crop, besides being left, in addition, a large excess of available labor and capital. The subject of preparing cotton for market, is one deserving the serious attention of the planter, involving as it does a plain question of dollars and cents. The classification in the prices current in New Orleans exhibits usually a discount of from ten to fifteen per cent. in the gross amount of an indifferently prepared crop. No practical planter should lay himself liable to such a disreputable tax on his character and his purse. Again, a very pernicious opinion prevails to a great extent among our planters, that success in agricultural pursuits depends more on the number of acres cultivated than on the science and skill of the cultivator—more in the amount of labor bestowed, than on the skill with which it is applied. This opinion might have been just fifty years ago, when the lands were new and not exhausted of those principles of fertility which had been accumulating for years by the decomposition of vegetable matter. But such opinions now, in their effects, must be ruinous to the country, as they form the most insurmountable obstacles to the diffusion of such knowledge and practical skill, as would enable us to restore to their original fertility, lands which have been exhausted by such injudicious husbandry. By diminishing the aggregate cotton crop of the country, and giving a more diversified direction to a portion of the capital and labor that has been devoted to its production, a new incentive would be presented to the planter to exercise more skill in improving the productive powers of his estate. The theatre of his vocation being extended, he would be prompted to read, converse, observe and

make experiments; new avenues to knowledge would be opened; and prejudices in favor of old modes and old principles would soon give way to a spirit of enlightened inquiry, displaying itself in a well-informed community of planters, who should constitute the stamina of society. For it has been aptly said, if other classes of men are the marble that adorns, they are the massy granite that forms the strength and durability of the edifice.

As essentially connected with the preceding views, we deem it incumbent on us here to disclose any new sources for the consumption of cotton that may have been discovered. In the report of Mr. Ellsworth, Commissioner of Patents, a most invaluable document that should be found in the hands of every planter, we find a new source of consumption proposed, which, if reduced to practice, would more than absorb the whole annual product of the American crop. Though this suggestion on the face of it has so much the air of extravagance, its practicability is so highly recommended by experiment and calculation, that we feel it our duty to express our convictions in its favor. This new source of consumption is founded on the proposition "that cotton is the cheapest, most comfortable, and most healthy material for bedding, that is known to the civilized world." Bold as this proposition seems to be, it is fully sustained by the following statement of the relative cost of a bed or mattress made of different materials, as exhibited in Mr. Ellsworth's report:—Cost of hair mattress, at 50 cents per pound, 30 or 40 pounds, from $15 to $20. Wool do. at 30 cents per pound, cost $11 to $12. Feathers do., 40 pounds at 30 cents per pound, cost $12. Moss or shuck mattress ready made, $12. Cotton do., 30 pounds at 8 cents per pound, cost $6 65. The cost of ticking at 12½ cents per yard, labor, thread, &c., are included in the above. The superior comfort and cleanliness of these beds are moreover fully established by the testimony of respectable individuals who have been using them. For it is added, "vermin will not abide in them; there is no grease in them as in hair or wool; they do not get stale and acquire an unpleasant odor, as feathers often do. Besides the advantages in all these particulars, they are in many cases medicinal, it being a known fact that raw cotton worn on parts affected, is one of the best and most effectual cures for rheumatic affections." Again, many of us can testify to the superior comfort and cheapness of an article that is coming into very common domestic use, most aptly called the "comfort," made of "cotton bats" between envelops of calico—an article that should have long ere this entirely supplanted the use of blankets on our southern plantations; for it encourages the consumption in a two-fold sense, by combining cotton in both its raw and manufactured state in the formation of them, at an expense, too, of only one dollar and thirty cents, for an article fully equivalent in its use to four dollars worth of blankets.

In illustrating the amount of the consumption of cotton by this new application of it, the report proceeds as follows:—"The United States, at this time, is supposed to have 20,000,000 of inhabitants. It is fair to presume that, upon an average, it requires a bed for every three persons. This, then, would give, say in round numbers, 7,000,000 beds or mattresses. To make that number, then, at thirty

pounds to the mattress, it would take 210,000,000 pounds of cotton, which, at 400 pounds to the bale, gives 525,000 bales." And further, "suppose Europe, which now consumes four-fifths of our raw cotton, should embrace these views and substitute it as an article of bedding, imagination could hardly conceive, and arithmetic could hardly calculate, the amount it would take to supply the demand." This exhibition of facts and reasoning is certainly entitled to the most serious consideration of the whole cotton planting community. Deeply interested as we are in the opening of every possible avenue to the increased consumption of our great staple, we are here called upon by the strongest inducements to enforce and sustain the correctness of the above views.

Having thus presented our views on the permanent causes of the depressed condition of the agricultural interests of the South, with the suggestion of remedies deemed most effective, in our estimation, it becomes a matter of equal importance to inquire how these remedies are to be successfully applied. Our reliance is on public opinion; not, however, to be elicited in the Congress of the United States, nor in any other political body whose action shall extend beyond the local interests of the respective States. Our appeal shall be to public opinion in the form organized as we found it in the Memphis Convention. As before intimated, the want of a proper concert and union of action, has hitherto been the great obstacle to the perfection of any plan affecting the entire interests of agriculturists as a class. The isolated expressions of opinion already elicited in every quarter of the South, give assurance that nothing is wanting but some public concentration of them to wake up the energetic action of the planters. Let Conventions be called, these subjects discussed, and the Legislatures of the respective States invoked in some suitable form, and we predict a new era will break upon the destiny of the planting interests. Above all, let our public journals and agricultural periodicals be more active and devoted in circulating useful information in reference to these peculiar interests of the South. Having assumed that the demand and supply of our great staple are disproportioned, and that the remedy consists in restoring the equilibrium by a proportional diminution in its production, it is perfectly obvious that uniformity of action on the part of the planters will be indispensable to success, in determining the precise ratio of reduction with which the work of reform shall commence. It is believed to be susceptible of demonstration, that a reduction of one-third in the aggregate crop would again put the price up to ten or twelve cents, from the fact that even at that price there is no other known material that can be so cheaply converted into the article of clothing for man; for the past experience of our country shows that flax or wool could not compete with cotton at fifteen cents, on account of the greater expense that attends their conversion into clothing; and still more advantageously shows that in its production, we have no dangerous rival to dread. Brazil, the only country on the face of the globe whose soil and climate offer any inducements to compete with us in the growth of cotton, can never arouse her indolent population to any successful efforts in its cultivation.

The "threats" of England to introduce the culture of cotton into

India, will evaporate into mere anti-slavery ebullitions, unless Sir Robert Peel can devise some process by which the Hindoo race may be superseded with his African "immigrants." The enterprising experiments made in 1834, with the aid of some of our experienced and skilful American planters, exhibit but a melancholy detail of the most disastrous results, and has probably taught her by this time that a penny of true wisdom is worth a pound of folly.

Let, then, the cotton planters of the South arouse from their *criminal* lethargy on this subject, and evince to the world that this is their own business; that "they have the whole thing in their own hands;" and that they are capable of managing their own concerns without invoking the peculiar *sympathies* of any of the modern new-fangled philanthropists of the day.

And though our northern brethren do of late so solemnly protest against "going with the multitude to do evil," we hope they will at least go on expanding their "*organic*" machinery for the reception of our raw material. For they may be assured, in our "measures of regeneration" we do not propose to interfere with any of their civil, social or religious rights; inasmuch as our philanthropy, in throwing its protection over a portion of the human race, shall prompt us only to increase their comforts and augment the price of labor. And, in conclusion, we would add, that in the consideration of this whole question, we regard the "supply and demand," in the light of the first reason given by the mayor of a French town, why he had not fired a salute in honor of the king's arrival. He told the king, in making his excuse, that he had fifty-four reasons why he had not honored him with a salute. The first was, he had no powder: "Stop," said the king, "that will do."

Art. III.—ANTIQUITIES OF LOUISIANA.

Among the archives of the department De la Marine et des Colonies, at Paris, there are to be found eight large folio volumes relating to the former French possessions in Louisiana. These volumes, though opened to the curious, have never yet been made public in this country. The mass of information embraced in them could not otherwise than shed a broad stream of light upon a period most obscure in the annals of our State. Without their light and guidance, the aims and purposes of the historian must, in every instance, be defeated. These papers still remain in Paris, when, by a computation made, a transcript of them might be had for the insignificant sum of about seven hundred dollars.

When Mr. E. J. Forstall, of New Orleans, was in France in 1841, he made a synopsis of the main matters discussed in these volumes, and communicated the results in a series of letters to His Excellency A. B. Roman, then Governor of the State of Louisiana.

Aware of the great interest which everything connected with the early records of the State is now exciting, and desirous of extending a knowledge of the matter already obtained, and to point out the

direction from which abundant more may be expected, we commence the publication of these letters, that they may have a wide and general circulation.

PARIS, January 24, 1841.

SIR :—In accordance with your request, and through the influence of our ambassador, General Cass, I began two days ago the overhauling, in the navy department, of the archives of Louisiana. As yet, I have only been able to devote two hours to this work, and I hasten to forward to you the inclosed report regarding the mouths of the Mississippi, wherein you will perceive:

1st. That in 1728, there existed three passes, one of them having a depth of sixteen feet.

2d. That subsequently, and before 1728, the date of the report, the deepest pass only measured eleven and a half feet.

3d. That the West India Company, in order to remedy an evil which occasioned damages to ships and cargoes, used drags (*herses en fer*) to clear the mud and sand.

4th. That it was soon discovered that the effect of the dragging was to clear the soft mud, while leaving a solid sand bottom growing with a fearful rapidity.

5th. That the plan being abandoned, a "*flute*" was placed inside the bar, and sunk into eighteen feet water by the means of wells built for that purpose inside such vessels, and filled up with water. This vessel was placed close to the bank of the bar, for the purpose of receiving the cargoes of vessels that could not cross it. It was soon perceived that the "flute" receiving the whole power of the current was forcing a passage of twenty-five feet through the pass. The whole matter was immediately communicated to the government.

This report I consider worthy of your attention.

I found in the archives, some records of concessions and surveys thereof from the earliest times—full statistics of the colony from its origin—a most interesting letter from La Salle on his first entrance into the Mississippi—a most curious report on cotton in 1760—of the great advantages Louisiana might derive from its culture—the difficulty of separating the seed from the wool—its introduction from St. Domingo—a report to Mr. de Maurepas on that matter, suggesting the importation from the East Indies of machinery to separate the seed, &c. A most interesting account and statistical statements of all the Indian tribes from Louisiana to North Carolina—a book of all ordinances respecting Louisiana—reports on all subjects from Canada to New Orleans. There are eight portfolios of the size of our notaries' records in New Orleans. The Canada papers are separated from the Louisiana papers.

I need not say the interest that I feel in these researches, working as it were among my ancestors. I had no idea of the number of talented men who settled in Louisiana.

PARIS, January 27, 1841.

SIR :—In continuation of my labors in the archives of the navy department, I now beg to inclose a copy of La Salle's account of the possession taken by him of the mouths of the Mississippi in

1682. This document I thought of sufficient interest, in a historical point of view, to deserve a full transcription :

(*Translation.*)

PROCES VERBAL OF THE TAKING POSSESSION OF LOUISIANA, DISCOVERED BY DE LA SALLE.

JACQUES LAMETAIRE, Notary of Fort Frontenac in New France, authorized and commissioned to exercise the said functions of Notary, during the voyage to Louisiana in North America, by M. de la Salle, the King's Governor of the aforesaid Fort Frontenac, commanding the said expedition of discovery, by virtue of a commission from His Majesty dated at St. Germain en Laye, the 12th of May, 1678.

To all whom these presents shall come, greeting :—

Know ye, that having been required by the said Sieur de la Salle to deliver to him an act signed by us, and the witnesses therein named, of the possession by him taken of the country of Louisiana, near the three outlets of the river Colbert (Mississippi), in the Gulf of Mexico, on the 9th April, 1682.

In the name of the high, mighty, very powerful, invincible and victorious Prince, Louis the Great, by the grace of God, King of France and of Navarre, the 14th of this name, and of his heirs and the successors of his crown.

We, the aforesaid Notary, have delivered said act to the said Sieur de la Salle, of the following tenor :—

The twenty-seventh of December, one thousand six hundred and eighty-one, M. de la Salle having departed on foot to join M. de Tonty, who, with all his people and crew, had gone in advance, joined them forty leagues from the country of the Miamis, where the ice had compelled them to stop on the bank of the river Chikagou (Chicago), in the country of the Maskouters ; the ice having become stronger, sledges were constructed in order to drag the baggage, the canoes and a Frenchman who was wounded, all along this river and the river Illinois, a distance of seventy leagues. Finally, all the French having assembled on the 25th January, 1682, they arrived at Pimiteoni, where the river being no longer frozen, except in certain spots, they continued their journey to the river Colbert, about sixty leagues distant from Pimiteoni, and about ninety leagues from the village of the Illinois. They arrived at the bank of the river Colbert on the 6th February, and remained there until the 13th, waiting for the savages who had been prevented by the ice from following them. The 13th, being all united, they departed, viz :—22 Frenchmen carrying arms, assisted by the Rev. Father Zenobie, a Recollet Missionary, and followed by 18 savages of New England, and some Algonquin, Olchipoises and Huron women.

On the 14th they arrived at the village of Maxoa, composed of 100 cabins, which they found empty. After having navigated until the 26th February, a distance of about 100 leagues on the river Colbert, and having stopped to hunt a Frenchman who had gone astray in the woods, it having been reported to M. de la Salle that a great number of savages had been seen in the neighborhood, and he, thinking that they might have captured this Frenchman, caused a fort to be constructed, of which he left M. de Tonty in command with 16 men,

and with the other 24 went in search of his lost follower, and to reconnoitre the savages.

Having marched two days through the woods without finding them, because they had fled, having been alarmed by the reports of the firearms which they had heard, he returned to the camp, and sent both savages and French to make discoveries, with the order, that if they found any savages, to spare their lives, in order to obtain information of the Frenchman.

A person named Gabriel Barbé, with two Indians, having encountered five of the Chickasas nation, brought in two of them. They were received in the best manner possible, and after having made them understand that they were in trouble on account of the loss of a Frenchman and that they had only taken them to get him back should he be found among them, and afterward make with them a lasting peace, as the French desired to do good to all of them. They assured us that they had never seen the person of whom we were in search, but that the peace would be received by the chiefs with much gratitude. We made them many presents, and as they had given us to understand that one of their villages was not farther distant than half a day's journey upon the road, M. de la Salle pursued that route in order to reach it. But having journeyed until night, and observing that the savages frequently contradicted each other in their conversation, M. de la Salle was unwilling to proceed any farther without provisions. He having pressed them to declare the truth, they acknowledged that they were yet four days' journey from their village, and when they observed that M. de la Salle was angry at having been deceived by them, they proposed that one of them should remain with him while the other would carry the intelligence to the village, where the ancients would come to join him four days' journey farther on. The said Sieur returned with one of the Chickasas, and the Frenchman whom they had been in search of having been found, they continued their voyage. They passed the river Chepontia, and the village of the Mostegames. The fog which was very thick, caused them to miss the channel that led to the rendezvous of the Chickasas, which they did not perceive.

On the 12th of March they arrived at Kapaka, a village of the Arkansas, where they made peace and took possession. On the 15th of March they passed another of their villages, situated upon the bank of the river, also two others at some distance in the woods, and arrived at Imaha, the largest village of that nation, where the peace was confirmed, and where they recognized that this village belonged to His Majesty.

Two of the Arkansas embarked with M. de la Salle to conduct him to the Taensas, their allies, who dwelt in eight villages upon the shores of a small lake, at the distance of about fifty leagues. On the 19th, they passed the villages of the Tunicas, Yazoos, and Ikoneras—but as they were not upon the banks of the river, and they were enemies of the Arkansas and Taensas, they were not visited.

On the 20th they arrived among the Taensas, by whom they were well received, and who furnished them with an abundance of provisions. M. de Tonty having been to one of their villages accompanied by six men, remained there until the next day; he found assembled

in that place 700 men capable of bearing arms, and peace was concluded there as well as with the Koroas, the chiefs of which had repaired thither from the principal village, distant about two leagues from that of the Natchez.

The two chiefs accompanied M. de la Salle to the banks of the river, where the chief of the Koroas embarked with him to conduct him to his village, where peace was again concluded with this nation, which, independent of the five villages of which it is composed, is allied with forty other neighboring villages. On the 31st, they passed the village of the Oumas without being aware of it, because of the fog, and its situation being a short distance from the river.

Upon the 3d of April, about ten o'clock in the morning, they discovered among the cane 13 or 14 canoes, and M. de la Salle went ashore with some others. They saw a number of foot-prints; and a little lower down some Indians were engaged in fishing, who, upon seeing us, abandoned everything and took to flight. We landed on the borders of a marsh made by the overflowing of the river. M. de la Salle sent two French for the purpose of making discoveries, and afterward two Indians, who related that there was a village near, but that in order to reach it, it was necessary to cross the whole of the marsh covered with cane; that they had been attacked by a shower of arrows by those of the village, who had not dared to engage in this marsh, and that they had retired, although neither the French nor the Indians who were with them had wished to fire, in accordance with the orders which they had received, not to push things to extremities.

Soon after, the beating of the drums, the hue and cry with which the savages are accustomed to begin the attack, was heard in the village. We waited for them three or four hours, as we could not encamp in this marsh, and not seeing or hearing anything more, we embarked. About an hour after we discovered the village of the Maheonala, which had been ruined a short time previously, and was filled with blood and dead bodies.

We encamped two leagues below. We continued the navigation of the river until the 6th of April, when we arrived at the three outlets by which the river Colbert discharges itself into the sea. We encamped upon the banks of the western branch, three leagues, or thereabouts, from its mouth.

On the 7th, M. de la Salle was reconnoitering and visiting the shores of the neighboring sea, and M. de Tonty the great middle channel of these two outlets, and found them beautiful, broad and deep. On the 8th of April we ascended a little above the confluence, in order to obtain a place dry and free from inundation, in about the 27th degree of north latitude. We prepared a column and cross—upon said column were painted the arms of France, with the following inscription:—

"Louis le Grand, Roi de France, et de Navarre regnant le 9th Avril, 1682."

All being under arms, we chaunted Te Deum, l'exaudiat, Domine salvum fac regem. After several discharges of musketry, and shouts of Vive le Roi, M. de la Salle erected the column, and standing near to it spoke aloud as follows, in French:—

"By the most high, most powerful, invincible, most victorious Prince Louis the Great, by the grace of God, King of France and Navarre, the fourteenth of this name.

"Upon this day, the 9th of April, 1682, I, by virtue of the commission which I hold in my hand, from His Majesty, ready to show to whom it may concern, have taken and do take possession in the name of His Majesty and of the successors to his crown, of this country of Louisiana, the sea, the harbors, ports, bays, straits adjoining, and all the nations, people, provinces, cities, hamlets, villages, mines, minerals, fisheries, rivers, streams, comprised within the extent of the said Louisiana, from the mouth of the great river St. Louis, from the eastern side, otherwise called Ohio, Olighin, Sipon, or Chiagona, and that by the consent of the Chasanons, Chickasas, and all other people dwelling there, with whom we have made alliance, as also along the river Colbert or Mississippi, and the rivers which discharge themselves into it from its source, beyond the country of the Sioux or Nadonessious, and this with their consent, and the consent of the Motantes, Illinois, Mastigarnes, Arkansas, Natchez, Koroas, who are the most considerable nations which dwell there, and who have also made alliance with us, or those with whom we are connected, as far as to its entrance into the sea or Gulf of Mexico, in the 27th degree of north latitude, even to the mouth of the river Palures, upon the assurance which we have from all those nations, that we are the first Europeans that have descended or ascended the said river Colbert.

"Protesting against all those who may in future endeavor to seize all or any of the aforesaid country, people or lands aforesaid, to the prejudice of the rights of His Majesty, here acquiring them by the consent of the aforesaid nations, of all which in case of need I take as witnessess those who now hear me, and I require the notary here present to prepare an act of it, to serve as occasion may require."

All present replied to this discourse by cries of Vive le Roi, and discharges of musketry. M. de la Salle caused moreover a tree to be planted in the earth, with a cross attached to it, and a leaden plate with a coat of arms of the French engraved on one side with the following Latin inscriptions:—Ludoviscus magnus regnat: nono Aprilis anno 1682. And on the other side—Robertus Cavellier Cum Domino de Tonty legato R. P. Zenobio membro recollecto, et viginti Gallis, primus hoc flumen inde, ab illineoissin pago enavigabit ejusque ostium fecit permissus nono Aprilis anno 1682.

After which the said Sieur de la Salle having declared that His Majesty, the eldest son of the church, acquired no country for the crown, in which his principal care was not to establish the Christian religion, it was necessary to plant the mark of the latter, which was done immediately by erecting a cross, before which they chaunted the *Vexilla* and the *Domine salvum fac regem*, whereupon the ceremony ended with shouts of Vive le Roi, of which, as well as all that precedes, the said Sieur de la Salle demanded of us an act. We delivered it to him, signed the 9th April, 1682. De la Salle, St. Zenobie, recollet missionary; Henry de Tonty, François de Boisrondet, Jean Bourdon, St. Deutray, Jaques Cauchois, Pierre

You, Gilles Meneret, Jean Michel Chirurgien, Jean Mas, Jean de Lignon, Nicholas de la Salle, et Lametaire, Notaire.

The following are memoranda of the documents I have examined. My intention is to give you a full insight into the whole of the papers here deposited:—

1. Remarks on the province of Louisiana, 5th August, 1751—depth of water at the Balize, fourteen feet—war with Indians—mode of warfare required: detachment from the main body always within reach of assistance, and the main body always within reach of supplies, &c.

2. 1716—Memorial of the regency council—advantages of New Orleans developed—proximity to Vera Cruz and Havana—river courses and latent wealth of the interior—fertility of the soil, favorable to tobacco, rice, and cacao—only issue to the Gulf of Mexico—party of twenty Canadians exploring the Red river—voyage performed in three months—their visit to the province of Leon in Mexico—copper mines discovered—iron, lead, gold and silver found in abundance—plan of colonization presented. This memorial is signed by L. A. de Bourbon and the Marshal d'Estrées, and is approved by the "conseil de Regence."

3. Statistical account by M. de Kerlerec of the Indians inhabiting the Mississippi and the Missouri—prospects of the colony. This report is signed Kerlerec, 12th December, 1758.

4. 1712—Memorial respecting the situation of Louisiana—project to deepen the pass from the river to the lake Maurepas, from Tunicas about 73 leagues from New Orleans, by cutting a point of land. Pirogues are stated as being then in communication with the lakes through that pass. This memorial is signed "Dartagnette."

5. 1712–1726—Laws and ordinances relative to Louisiana.

6. History of the irruption of the North Americans upon the lands of Louisiana. This document is signed by "Villars, Favre Daunoy," April, 1778.

7. Account of the death of La Salle.

8. 1680—Memorial explaining the reasons which led France, in 1680, to undertake the colonization of the country north of the Gulf of Mexico. This memorial is signed by "De la Boulay."

9. 1725—Questions propounded to M. de la Chaise by the "Compagnie des Indes"—and his answers thereto.

10. 1740—Memoir of the Engineer Duvergés, recommending certain works at the Balize.

11. 1748—Letter from M. de Vaudreuil respecting the Balize—depth of the water at one of the passes, eighteen feet.

12. Letter to the French minister respecting wax from a certain tree, 1748.

13. Dec. 7, 1750—Letter to the French minister from M. de Richemore, recommending two financial plans.

14. Letter from M. de Richemore to ministers, containing an account of all the officers and cadets in service.

15. April, 1764—Memorial from M. Brand, praying for an exclusive privilege to establish a printing office in New Orleans.

16. April, 1764—Letter from M. d'Abbadie to the Duke of Chois-

eul, showing the advantages of the colony—speaking of the first experiments in the culture of the cane, and forwarding samples of sugars from the estate of Chevalier de Masan.

17. June, 1764—Letter from the same, complaining of the demoralization produced by the circulation of depreciated paper, and the immoderate use of ardent spirits, even by the higher class of society.

18. Memorial of the merchants of New Orleans to M. d'Abbadie, "Directeur General Commandant la Province de la Louisiane."

I have just got hold of a package containing all the papers relative to the difficulties which occurred under the government of Ulloa. There is a long document from Aubry, which shows that he was at the bottom of all the mischief.

Art. IV.—MILITARY AND NAVAL RESOURCES AND NECESSITIES OF THE SOUTH AND WEST.

THE two great divisions of the Union known as the South and West—extending from the Atlantic Ocean and the western base of the Alleghany mountains on the east, to the Missouri river and the western limits of Louisiana, Arkansas, and the other western territories on the west; from the Lakes of the North to the Gulf of Mexico—embrace over a million and seventy-five thousand square miles of land.

This vast extent of country possesses every variety of soil and climate: it is divided into mountains, hills, and valleys; into high lands and low lands; into rich agricultural and rich mineral lands; into vast forests of timber and extensive prairies and savannahs: it is watered and drained by a system of rivers unsurpassed in size and navigable utility; the Atlantic and the Gulf of Mexico lave its eastern and southern shores, and the Lakes of the North skirt its northern boundary. Here nature has executed her works on the most gigantic scale; mediocrity is nowhere recognized in her productions; it is a land selected by Providence for a chosen people, destined to accomplish great and noble ends.

A proper description of the naval and military resources of a country, involves the necessity of a description of its natural as well as of its industrial productions.

The geological formations of this vast domain indicate its great capability of supplying all the useful mineral productions.

Extending from the base of the Alleghany ridge in the northeastern part of Pennsylvania into Alabama is a vast formation of bituminous coal and iron, in close proximity to each other, containing, it is supposed, an area of six thousand square miles. To the west is another tract of the same description, said to be of equal extent, embracing large portions of Indiana, Illinois, Missouri and Arkansas. This circumstance is of immense importance, when it is considered that the manufacturing superiority of England, and, consequently, her power and ability to arm and equip navies, and to maintain her proud position of mistress of the seas, are based upon the circumstance of the close proximity of her iron and her coal.

Already a large proportion of the lead consumed in the world is obtained from the northern section of this country; a large proportion of the copper used in the United States is procured from the same region. Zinc is likewise found associated with the lead.

In addition to the inexhaustible beds of the richest iron and coal in the middle and southern divisions, we find in abundance lead, salt, zinc, manganese, sulphuret of iron, &c.

In the caves which so frequently occur through the limestone regions of the middle portion of the South and West, are found rich beds of earths from which saltpetre is made.

Every variety of stone, from the recent sandstone to the granite, limestone of various kinds, from which the common as well as the hydraulic lime is manufactured, marble, &c., are to be had through the different portions of this country. Vast tracts of marl and gypsum, well situated for transportation to market, are likewise found.

Clays, suitable for common and fire-bricks, for pottery, earthenware, porcelain, &c., the component parts of glass, alum, &c., are found in abundance in different localities.

In the precious metals, such as gold and silver, this region is also famed; the former metal abounds in parts of North and South Carolina, Tennessee, Georgia and Alabama; silver, however, has not yet been obtained in such quantities as to make it an object worthy of being sought after.

The vast and boundless forests of the South and West have been the subject of admiration since the first exploration of the country. The variety and quality of the timber are scarcely more to be admired than its abundance and its adaptability to useful purposes. Although vast tracts of forest have been destroyed to give place to cultivation, yet the greater portion of the soil is still covered by it. It is estimated that this vast forest is composed of one hundred and fifty different kinds of trees, most of which are useful for their timber, and for their resinous and other qualities.

In the middle and northern sections are found the white oak, so admirably adapted, from its great strength, durability, and size, for ship-building, gun carriages, etc.; the post oak; the chesnut white oak; the rock chesnut oak, the bark of which is so highly esteemed for its tanning principles, and its timber for naval purposes; the black walnut, a wood almost exclusively used for stocks of muskets, naves of wheels, &c.; the numerous varieties of hickories, highly useful on account of their strength and tenacity for handspikes, axe handles, &c.; the sugar maple, from which most of the potash is made; the red maple, from the wood of which the stocks of the celebrated western rifles are made; the canoe birch, the outer bark of which is useful for constructing light canoes; the locust, extensively used for naval purposes, for the manufacture of trunnels, &c.; the American chesnut, affording an excellent charcoal; the different varieties of gum, etc., well adapted, on account of its resistance to splitting, for naves of wheels of gun carriages; the red mulberry, a durable wood and well suited for naval purposes; the red and yellow pine, both of which are eminently adapted, on account of their size, strength and durability, for naval architecture; the white pine, one of the most useful woods of the forest, furnishing most of the masts

used in the United States, and the black spruce, also well adapted for masts and for ship building.

But it is in the southern portions of the South and West where the most valuable timbers for naval architecture are found. Stretching through North and South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama and Louisiana, are vast forests of the long yellow pine, of matchless height and straitness; it is one of the most useful and valuable of the forest trees, not only on account of the excellent quality of its timber, but for the tar, pitch and turpentine which it yields in great abundance. It extends over a tract 600 miles long and 100 in breadth, and grows almost universally over this immense extent of soil.

Most of the swamps bordering on the numerous rivers of the South are covered by the bald cypress, one of the most useful and indispensable woods, on account of its lightness, durability and strength. In the swamps skirting the Atlantic and Gulf coast is likewise obtained in great abundance the white cedar, which yields a charcoal, said to be superior to any other for the manufacture of gunpowder. The red cedar is another highly valuable wood, indigenous to this section of the country. It is found in some situations in great abundance, and is a very useful wood for naval purposes.

The Palmetto, another valuable wood, grows along the south Atlantic coast. It is the only wood known to withstand the action of the seaworm, and is therefore well adapted for wharves and other constructions exposed to the sea-water. It is also useful for forts, as was shown as early as the revolutionary war, at Fort Moultrie, on account of its property of not flying into splinters when perforated by cannon balls.

But the timber best calculated for ship-building remains yet to be mentioned: we refer to the live oak; it is acknowledged to be, on account of its great strength and durability, one of the most useful timbers for ships. It grows along the whole Atlantic and Gulf coasts, south of lat. 37 deg. north, to the mouth of the Sabine river. Much of it has been destroyed, still large quantities remain in some situations, which the government very properly has taken steps to protect.

It is, however, in considering the productive industry of the West and South, that we are forcibly struck with the resources and the capabilities of this favored land. The extraordinary fertility and cheapness of land, the natural facilities for transportation to market afforded by the numerous rivers, and the actual wants of the people, have made agriculture their chief pursuit. Hence, although the richest and most productive regions have not been settled more than a quarter of a century, yet the South and West already supply great portions of the United States, and of the world, with their surplus produce. This surplus produce consists not only of necessary articles of food, but of indispensable materials wherewith to clothe the population. The character, too, of this produce, is such that a large proportion of it cannot be obtained from other portions of the globe, in quantities sufficient to supply the demand; and as the chief article, cotton, is so indispensable for the wants of other countries, the great advantages of the South and West will be at once perceived.

All the cotton and rice produced in the United States come from

this section of the country; the greatest portion of the wheat and corn, hemp and flax, sugar, oats, &c., are likewise obtained from it.

The following is a statement of the aggregate amount of some of the articles produced in the South and West, based upon the estimate of the Commissioner of Patents, for 1844:

Bushels of wheat	62,514,000	Tons of hay	5,617,000
" " barley.....	647,000	" " flax and hemp ..	22,800
" " oats.....	98,936,000	Pounds of cotton	872,101,000
" " rye	5,836,000	" " rice.....	111,759,000
" " corn	358,069,000	" " sugar	180,610,000
" " potatoes	41,642,000		

Owing to the great fertility of the soil, a larger proportion of produce, in comparison with the population and the land cultivated, is yielded in this section of the country, than perhaps in any other of the same extent on the globe. Nor has a limit to this great abundance been yet attained. Most of it is the unassisted products of the soil, and there is no doubt that when land becomes more valuable, and a proper system of agriculture is pursued, a much greater proportion will be obtained.

The population of the South and West being about eleven and a half millions, and estimating that each man, woman and child consumes twelve bushels of bread-stuffs, corn and potatoes, per annum, the requisite supply would be 138,000,000 bushels. Now, the aggregate amount of the bread-stuffs, corn and potatoes, produced in the South and West, may be set down at 567,644,000 bushels. Deducting one-tenth for seed, we would have, as the available supply, 510,879,600 bushels. The consumption for the population being deducted from this amount, we would have the enormous amount of 372,879,600 bushels, for a supply of other portions of the Union, food for stock, exportation and increase of population.

Although much attention has not been bestowed in the South and West upon manufactures, until within the last few years, yet rapid strides have been made in this branch of productive industry, and they not only supply the actual wants of the population, but they export a considerable amount. Most of the manufactures have naturally been confined to those articles necessary for a population settling a new country. The same description of articles required for their purposes is also needed for naval and military forces. This circumstance would be fully ascertained by examining the kind of manufactures mostly produced in the South and West.

In the manufacture of machinery, hardware, cannon and small arms, cotton and wool, leather, powder and glass, hemp and flax, no inconsiderable progress has been made. The quality of the manufactures will compare with any elsewhere, and that the quantity is not very great, is owing solely to the want of a demand, and to the fact that labor has heretofore obtained a better reward in other pursuits.

The immense natural resources of the South and West, their inexhaustible beds of iron and coal in juxta-position with one another, the superior quality of these materials, the boundless water power afforded by the streams and rivers, taken in connection with the cheapness and abundance of provisions, demonstrate that if the *occa-*

sion required, manufactures might be pushed to an extent here never before witnessed in any other country.

The commerce on our rivers has created a description of steam vessels unsurpassed for size, speed, capacity and beauty. The machinery of these vessels, as well as construction, is peculiar to the West, and affords an example of the great perfection to which excellence in these branches of the mechanic arts has been carried.

Pittsburgh, Wheeling, Cincinnati, Louisville and St. Louis, have already the requisite means, with their iron and other manufactories, to furnish any required amount of naval and land armaments and equipments.

Upward of one hundred furnaces send their iron to the city of Pittsburgh for manufacture, from which can be selected at any time the most suitable metal for cannon. The rolling mills at this place turn out daily two hundred tons of the various kinds of rolled iron, from which chain cables, anchors, boilers, wrought iron shafts, cranks, &c., are made. There are also twenty iron foundries and fourteen engine shops in operation, three of which have been and are yet engaged in building iron steamships for our government. One of these steamships is now being constructed.

The "Fort Pitt Works," which consist of a foundry, boring mill, engine shop, and an iron ship-yard, are the most extensive in the West, and will favorably compare with any in the United States. This establishment is at present engaged in casting one heavy sixty-four pounder cannon every day, and boring eight at the same time; besides manufacturing other ordnance, heavy iron-work, and machinery, among which may be mentioned two iron steamers, lately completed for the government. The heavy sea-coast guns which are now making at these works for the various fortifications on the Atlantic, Gulf and Lake coasts, are to be mounted, and to be supplied with carriages at the Alleghany arsenal, in the vicinity of Pittsburgh. It has been ascertained from a comparison of proposals from various sections of the Union, that suitable oak timber, with other materials, and labor, for mounting cannon, can be furnished more cheaply at Pittsburgh than in any other section of the Union.

There are also in Pittsburgh a number of factories for making wrought-iron shafts and cranks of the largest dimensions, anvils, vices, anchors and chain cables, as well as steel factories, file factories, brass foundries and coppersmith shops. There are also extensive rope-walks. So early as the last war most of the rigging of Perry's fleet was supplied from one of the most extensive of these establishments, and the same works have lately furnished the large iron frigate above alluded to with her entire rigging complete, in a most satisfactory manner. It should also be stated that some of the cannon which aided Perry in gaining his glorious victory on the lake, were cast at Pittsburgh.

An extensive powder mill is likewise in operation at this place, capable of furnishing 3,600 pounds of gunpowder daily; and it is stated likewise that cavalry and infantry accoutrements have been made better and cheaper at Pittsburgh than in any other place of the United States.

The situation of Pittsburgh as a place of supply in a military and

naval point of view, is very important. Being situated in the midst of that immense bed of bituminous coal and iron to which we have before alluded, and at the confluence of the Monongahela and Alleghany, this city is supplied with every article necessary for army and navy operations. The internal improvements executed of late years, terminating at Pittsburgh, together with the natural channels of communication, afford a cheap and ready transportation for the various articles of manufacture to the Atlantic cities, to the lakes and to the Gulf of Mexico, at almost all seasons of the year. The iron steamships built at Pittsburgh for the lakes, were transported thither by water communication. Added to these advantages, Pittsburgh being at the head of the Ohio valley, has access to a rich agricultural country; this, with abundance of fuel, makes subsistence in this city cheap and good.

The productive industry of Cincinnati is employed in manufacturing articles requiring manual labor, more than those made by machinery. In this respect it differs greatly from Pittsburgh. The manufactures in wood, iron and other metals, leather, cotton, wool, linen and hemp, etc., of Cincinnati, amounted in the year 1841, to nearly $17,500,000 and employed 10,647 hands. Of these manufactures there were five steamboat yards producing $592,500 per annum, and employing 306 hands; thirteen foundries and engine shops, employing 563 hands; and producing $668,657; four machinists employing 42 hands, and producing $77,000; two rolling mills employing 148 hands, and producing $394,000; five sheet-iron works employing 33 hands, and producing $58,000; eight brass foundries employing 62 hands, and producing $81,000; thirty-two copper, brass, sheet-iron, and tin-plate shops employing 208 hands, and producing $311,300; in the manufactures of leather, making boots, shoes, saddlery, and the material itself, there were 988 hands employed, producing $1,768,000; the manufactures of cotton, wool, linen and hemp—consisting of awning and sail-making, coach lace, fringe and military equipments, cotton-yarn factories, oil cloth factories, cordage and rope factories, etc.—employed 352 hands, and produced $411,190.

Beside these, there are manufactories of white lead, oil for machinery, etc., paper, flour, clothing (the clothing stores alone employ 813 hands, and produce $1,223,800 per annum), hats, soap, candles, powder, etc., etc.

From the above statement we are struck with the great extent to which the productive industry of Cincinnati has arrived. Many other articles might have been added to it, but we have only selected those which are most required for military and naval forces.

The manufactures of Cincinnati are noted throughout the West for their superiority of workmanship. and their excellence of material; hence they command better prices than those from the East. This city is also famed for its steamboat building; some of the finest and largest boats on the western waters have been constructed there. In 1840 there were thirty-three steamboats of 5,631 tons built, at a cost of $592,000.

A great many, and it is believed a large part of the boats plying on the western waters are built at Louisville and New Albany. Louis-

ville has several large foundries and steam engine factories, flouring mills, tanneries, rope factories, etc., etc. The total capital employed in manufactures is $713,675.

New Albany has also a large iron foundry and steam engine factory, rope factory, and several extensive ship yards, at which not only steamboats are built, but sloops, schooners, etc., for New Orleans.

St. Louis has of late years been making some progress in manufactures: heretofore its population has been chiefly employed in commerce and its dependent trades. In 1840 the capital employed in its manufactures was $674,520.

Not to be too prolix, however, we submit the following statement of some of the articles of the manufacturing industry of the South and West for the year 1840:

226 furnaces produced 103,371 tons of cast iron.
197 forges produced 30,369 tons of bar iron.
30,078,452 lbs. of lead were extracted.
Gold produced amounted to $530,405.
The manufactures in hats and caps amounted to $1,443,474.
5,778 manufactories of leather produced $5,920,545.
3,288 persons employed in machinery produced $2,641,986.
850 persons employed in hardware and cutlery produced $632,760.
165 rope walks produced $1,518,500.
302 fulling mills and 310 woollen manufactories produced $1,098,872.
217 cotton manufactories produced $2,519,373.
630 persons made 18,280 small arms.
15 powder mills made 512,900 lbs. of powder.

Since 1840, all these manufactories, especially those of iron, cotton, powder and machinery have greatly increased.

In the material for manning an army or a navy, or in other words the requisite physical force, we have reason to be satisfied from past experience, from our institutions, and from the intelligent, enterprising and energetic character of our population. Not only could a sufficient force be obtained, but that force has already proved itself to be of a superior character. Our laws and habits tend to make almost every individual a disciplined and an effective soldier. A large number, and indeed most of the inhabitants of the South and West are trained from their earliest youth to the use of arms. Their pursuits and mode of life render them skilful in manly exercises and capable of enduring fatigue. These qualities, joined to the consciousness of being freemen, and to their proverbial love of country, create a spirit within them, which, once aroused, never could be conquered. While the militia of the United States according to the official returns made on the 21st of November, 1841, amounted to 1,587,722, the South and West furnished 841,928.

The commerce on our rivers and lakes has likewise furnished a marine which could be effectively applied in manning a steam fleet. It is estimated that the number of men thus employed does not fall short of 40,000; these, by an addition of a proper number of sailors, and ordinary sailors, marines and marine artillery-men, would man a steam fleet equal to any emergency in the most efficient manner.

The steam engines of the boats plying on the waters of the Mississippi valley, are now principally managed by men who are regularly brought up in the steam engine factories of the West. Their course of education makes them acquainted with the theory and practice of constructing steam engines, and as a consequence, skilful in their management. They would afford an excellent corps of practical steam engineers. Their number may be safely put down at not less than seven hundred.

It is admitted by all, that government has been partial in making appropriations for the defenses of the north Atlantic coast, more, it is presumed, from the fact that heretofore greater interests have been exposed at the North, and consequently, there have been greater demands for protection. But the last fifteen years have greatly altered the position of things; and with this change, a different action of government in regard to appropriations for military and naval purposes, improvements, &c., is imperatively demanded.

The works composing the system of military defenses of the Gulf of Mexico, from the Sabine to Pensacola, adopted by the government, although nearly complete, are nevertheless not in a condition suitable for effective service. *Fort Livingston*, at the mouth of Barataria bay, on Grand Terre island, defends completely the approach by the bayou Barataria to New Orleans. It is a strong work, and will be finished in a year. No other work is necessary to defend this part of the coast of Louisiana, from the Sabine to the Balize. The entrances to the small rivers are well protected by shoals, quicksands, and the intricacy of the navigation of the rivers themselves. Forts Jackson and St. Philip, situate about thirty miles above the mouth of the Mississippi, are in the course of improvement and repairs, and afford at this time a very strong defense. In time of war, a system of rafts is projected, to be placed between the two forts, by which it is believed the most powerful steam vessels can be arrested and utterly destroyed by the twelve inch guns of the forts. These two forts defend the Mississippi river approach to New Orleans. The lake approaches to New Orleans are through the shallow lakes of Borgne and Pontchartrain to the bayous Dupré and Bienvenue, and the passes Chef Menteur and Rigolet. All these passes have been occupied by works and the approaches guarded. At bayou Dupré a strong tower and heavy battery have been constructed. At bayou Bienvenue a heavy battery and barracks are established. At the pass Chef Menteur a strong work is in complete order, and another of the same size and importance is established at the pass Rigolet; so that every approach to New Orleans is completely guarded, and nothing more remains to be done but to fill these works with all the munitions of war, and with sufficient garrisons, to put them in a perfect state of defense in time of war.

Fort Morgan, at the mouth of Mobile bay, is an exceedingly well built and very strong and efficient work. It is undergoing some repairs and improvements, which will place it among the strongest and most efficient works of the country. This work is not, however, deemed sufficient to guard the entrance to Mobile bay, and another work has been recommended to be built on the middle ground between Dauphin Island and Mobile Point, which it is believed will

effectually answer the purpose. Fort Morgan is, like the others, unprovided with cannon and munitions.

The harbor of Pensacola is the only harbor in the United States where the system for its defense by sea and by land is complete, or nearly so, (as a small redoubt is under operation requiring a year to complete it). Forts Pickens, McKee and Barancas, effectually guard the channel approach, and the latter work has a strong command over the land approach in the rear of the navy yard, and in connection with a redoubt now building, will present a "coup de main" against the navy yard from that quarter. This harbor has been made very strong, with the view to the complete protection of the navy yard located there. Although very efficient military works of defense have been constructed at Pensacola, yet a great neglect has been manifested in the naval fixtures for such an important station, the only one in the Gulf. The works were never designed to protect a naked harbor only, but to defend a grand naval arsenal. But it so happens that this naval arsenal does not exist, except in an incomplete and inefficient manner.

It is evident from this sketch of the present condition of the military defenses of the Gulf, that only the approaches to cities are fortified, leaving the main channel to the Gulf of Mexico, and some of the most important harbors on the Florida reef totally unprotected, offering and inviting, as it were, the strongest and safest positions to an enemy from which it might issue and paralyze our movements.

The first and most important work for the protection of the South and West to be executed, is the immediate fortification of Key West, the Tortugas, and the Florida reef. The importance of having these great strategetic points fortified has been demonstrated by scientific gentlemen conversant with these subjects. So early as 1822 the attention of the distinguished Mr. Calhoun, then Secretary of War, was turned toward these points. In that year Lieutenant Tuttle, of the Engineers, examined Key West, and made a report on its capacities for defense. Commodore Rodgers, in 1829, brought the subject before the Secretary of the Navy. The chief engineer of the United States has frequently advocated the necessity of fortifying the same places, upon the ground "that it would afford a point of refuge to our navy and commerce at the very point where it would be most necessary and useful." General Jesup says, "Key West, and the Dry Tortugas, and Key Biscayne are the great strategetic points on our Southern frontier, and they should be fortified." Captain Bernard, United States Engineer, describes the unrivaled qualities of the Tortugas as a harbor almost impracticable of blockade. Major William H. Chase, United States Engineer, in an admirable memoir on the defense of the Gulf of Mexico, and the strategetic principles governing the national defenses, published in the Pensacola Gazette of the 29th March, 1845, says, "At Tortugas nature has performed more than half the work by establishing firm coral foundations almost in the exact positions that the art of the engineer would have selected, suitable works erected at these positions will render that portion of the Tortugas impregnable to assault, and nearly impracticable of blockade;" and he again says, "If the United States do not occupy Key West and the Tortugas, an enemy will—the enemy is supposed

English, as the present dominant naval power. In many respects those positions would be more available to them than the Havana, because of the facility of defense, and, in the case of Tortugas, impracticability of siege. The enemy would very soon, with the materials of the islands, of which he could make lime, construct such works as would protect his naval forces and operations during war, and perhaps making them impregnable like Gibraltar, refuse at its conclusion to re-deliver. At all events he would be able to dictate the terms of peace from the fortress of the Tortugas."

Notwithstanding all these strong representations—notwithstanding the necessity of occupying these points for the defense of the Gulf has been repeatedly demonstrated—and notwithstanding Congress two years ago fully approved of the measure, and authorized and made appropriations for the defense of Key West and the Tortugas, still little or nothing as yet has been done. This delay under these circumstances, and when, too, the attention of all nations has been attracted to these important points, is alike unwise, impolitic, and ruinous. The works once commenced *should be finished in the shortest possible time*, consistent with *stability of construction*, for obvious reasons. In an unfinished state they would easily fall into the hands of a superior naval power in a war suddenly declared. Our present relations with England render such an event by no means improbable. Besides, the position of the island of Cuba, with its present unsettled state, and the possibilities of a revolution, or of attempts which might be made to cede it to England, admonish us that these great strategetic points should be immediately occupied by suitable works. These points rendered impregnable, and supplied with ample stores, munitions of war, magazines, &c., &c., we have safe retreats for our vessels of war and of commerce, and have a complete command over the Gulf.

In addition to these fortifications, the harbor of Bahia Hondo should be protected, it being the only harbor from Key West to Cape Florida, within the reef, in which vessels can find safe anchorage.

Tampa bay affords a convenient harbor for steam vessels, and would, if properly fortified, be of great service in the system of defenses.

Ship Island, opposite to the coast of Mississippi, affords a good harbor for large vessels, and should be properly fortified.

The occupation and fortification of all these points have been strongly recommended by officers of the Engineer department. They have estimated the cost of the necessary works at

Key West	$1,500,000
Tortugas	1,500,000
Bahia Hondo	200,000
Tampa Bay	200,000
Ship Island	100,000
In all	$3,500,000

From this estimate it appears that the amount required for fortifying Key West and the Tortugas is only 3,000,000 dollars, an insignificant sum truly in comparison with the interests at stake—not more than one-sixth of the annual exports of the comparatively small town of Mobile, and one-twentieth of the annual exports of New Orleans,

all of which are obliged to pass by these important places before they enter upon the high-road to their different destinations. Yet two years have elapsed since Congress made appropriations, and little or nothing has been done.

In reference to the military defenses of the Gulf, it has been shown that government has done much toward their completion, and that it would require but little more attention to place it in a perfect state of defense. As regards, however, the requisite naval means, it is a mortifying reflection, that a shameful neglect has been evinced; and south of Norfolk, there is only one naval station, the one at Pensacola. We have before adverted to the fact, that this place could only be called a naval station, although it has been fortified at a great expense, with the view of protecting a navy yard which does not exist.

Had Pensacola been provided with a dry dock, or any other description of dock by which vessels might be repaired, the shameful spectacle of a first class frigate being place *hors du combat* at a critical moment, when her services were daily expected to be required before Vera Cruz, would not have been witnessed last summer. No better argument than this for the immediate construction of a dry dock at Pensacola, can be required;—at Pensacola, because it is one of the best harbors in the South, capable of admitting the largest class of vessels, and is already fortified.

The navy yard at Pensacola should also be provided with store-houses and magazines capable of holding large supplies of provisions, naval munitions, &c. In fact, it should have every appliance necessary for a naval arsenal worthy of a great maritime nation and of its important position. Here should be collected not only the materials necessary for repairing vessels, and for replacing things which may be worn out and unfit for use, but all the materials, timber, machinery, cordage, sails, etc., necessary for constructing and equipping vessels. There is no place where a great portion of these articles could be more easily collected. It has access to the finest timbered country for naval purposes in the United States, to a good market for supplies and provisions, and its health, taken on an average throughout the year, will favorably compare with any place in the country.

Docks of some description should also be established at Key West and the Tortugas, with store-houses, etc., for a large supply of provisions, munitions of war, etc. The dangerous navigation around the coast of Florida and in the Gulf of Mexico, loudly calls for additional means of protection to our mercantile marine, such as light-houses, lights, buoys, etc., at the different points required. This department should be placed under the superintendence of competent persons, and a record should be kept and published of the additions and changes which continually take place in the position of the maritime lights and channels.

The improvements effected of late years in communication between this country and Europe, and our consequent frequent interchange of intelligence and products, have increased our mutual dependency, and augmented the chances of injurious effects from disturbances in the old world. Now more than ever this country is obliged to adopt similar measures for the preservation of its interests.

The great maritime nations of Europe, England and France, have been making prodigious efforts to preserve their commerce by the increase of their steam navies; and we are compelled likewise to follow their example, if it be desired to meet them on an equal footing; for it must be admitted, that the application of steam has created a new era in the art of naval warfare; and that power which has the greatest force of this kind, *ceteris paribus*, would certainly come off victor in a contest.

It is therefore a matter of congratulation, that government has shown itself aware of the importance of steam vessels by appropriations made to establish at Memphis a navy yard, principally for the construction of vessels of this description.

Judging from the signs of the times, active measures for the construction of steam vessels will have to be taken. Should such be the case, the emergency will be met in a proper manner; and we have already shown that there are several places in the West possessing every convenience, labor, skill and material, for constructing and equipping steam vessels of any required strength and size. There cannot be the least doubt, that if the energies were taxed, and an extraordinary demand made, from one to two steam frigates might be finished every sixty days, in full fighting order, at each one of these different places.

In addition to the military and naval means which have been described, a fleet of steam vessels, commanded by naval officers, and properly armed with bomb cannon, is required both for the defense of the important cities, naval depots, and salient points of the Gulf, and for the protection of its commerce. Even in periods of profound peace, such descriptions of vessels would be eminently useful in forwarding the general interests of the country, by the transportation of the mail, passengers, &c., and by their presence in the waters frequented by our commerce.

The establishment of a mail line of armed steamers between Pensacola and Chagres would no doubt be of great service in a commercial point of view, and would afford considerable protection to our interests in the Gulf of Mexico and the Carribean sea. The steamers would pass by the Tortugas and Cape Antonio into the Carribean sea, and thence into the bay of Panama. They should be about seven hundred tons burthen, fitted for war purposes, and commanded by naval officers. It is proposed that the steamers should make weekly trips between Pensacola and Chagres, and that they should carry the mail, and, under certain regulations, passengers.

The transit could be made as follows:

From Chagres to Pensacola,	7	days.
" Pensacola to Washington,	6	"
" Washington to New York,	1	"
" New York to Liverpool,	14	"
From the Pacific to England,	28	days.

Of course not only the correspondence of the United States with the Pacific and trans-Pacific countries, but of all Europe, would flow into this channel. Steamers are already running on the Pacific to the different South American ports. Very soon steamers would be

established with India and China, and thus the correspondence and travel with those extreme countries would be made tributary in their transit to the United States.

The direct advantages to the United States from such an enterprise, would be these:

1. A direct mail communication between the United States and the Pacific commerce.

2. A school of steamery in naval operations for our officers and men.

3. An armed observation of war steamers of the important line from Pensacola by Cape Antonio into the Carribean sea, thence to the bay of Panama.

Other lines of equal importance might be established. The mail and passengers would pay in a great measure for the expense of such mail lines, but admiting that a million of dollars per annum were necessary, it would be amply repaid by the increased activity and prosperity of the commerce of the waters visited by the steamers, and by the protection afforded by them to our interests.

To facilitate the operations of the steamers in the Gulf, it will be necessary to establish coal depots at places the most convenient, and where they could be properly protected. For instance, at Key West and the Tortugas, at Tampa bay, at Fort Morgan, Mobile Point, at Ship or Cat Island, and at Fort St. Philip or Jackson, on the Mississippi river, to supply the steamers coming down that river. These depots should be sufficiently large to contain supplies for any required demand in cases of emergency.

The present facilities for transporting troops, provisions, munitions of war, &c., to the different points on the Gulf, with speed and safety, are by no means great. Most of the supplies required in the Gulf must come down the Mississippi river to New Orleans, from thence they have to be sent either through the mouths of the Mississippi into the Gulf, where they are exposed to a dangerous navigation and to the chances of being cut off before they arrive at their places of destination, or they have to be subjected to transhipments on the Pontchartrain railroad and the steamers on the lakes—a line of transportation acknowledged to be the most expensive of any in the United States.

Within the last few years the coal beds on the Warrior river, in the State of Alabama, have been worked, and are found to yield an excellent quality of bituminous coal. These beds are inexhaustible: this fact at once answers the question of supplies of coal.

As a general thing, it is acknowledged that the opening of direct communications, either by railways, canals or river improvements, by which troops and supplies are easily and rapidly transported to given points, is a very important branch of the defenses of the country. In this view the following suggestions are ventured:

1. To re-open the Iberville river and bayou Manchac, from the Mississippi river to Lake Pontchartrain. This improvement would enable troops and supplies of provisions to be brought direct to different points on the Gulf.

2. To construct the long-contemplated canal across the isthmus of Florida, and between the St. Johns and the Suwanee rivers. It is said that this canal would be only eighteen miles long.

Such improvements would connect the Mississippi river with the Atlantic ocean by a safe inside navigation within the chain of islands which lie along the coasts of Florida, Alabama, and Mississippi. They would save in distance at least 1,300 miles in a direct communication with the North, and would avoid the dangerous navigation through the intricate channels of the Florida Keys, and along the Atlantic coast of Florida. Their advantages in a commercial point of view are so apparent, that they require no illustration.

The establishment of a western armory is also an object of great national importance. It is not so much on account of the fact that the eastern States have an armory at Springfield, Mass., and the middle States one at Harper's Ferry, Va., that we would recommend the establishment of a national armory and foundry at some point on the western waters. The superior facilities afforded by the West for obtaining the best materials, the abundance of fuel, and the cheapness of subsistence, the cheap and ready transportation to various portions of the Union by natural communications, present such advantages, that it is believed arms of every description and all the implements of war, could be manufactured cheaper in the West than in any other portion of the Union.

There are many places in the West which might be selected as a suitable site for such an establishment. Such a place should have the means at all times of the year, of transporting the manufactured articles to the required points, for use; it should have access to supplies for materials and for subsistence; it should have an unlimited supply of water power, health, etc., etc.

It is believed that the Harpeth Shoals on the Cumberland river, in the State of Tennessee, combine all these advantages in an eminent degree. Situated in a region of country which produces more corn and pork in proportion to the number of inhabitants, than any other, subsistence is cheap and of an excellent quality. Below this point, the Cumberland river to its embouchure into the Ohio, is navigable at all seasons of the year; below the mouth of the Cumberland the Ohio has but few obstructions, and could at little expense be made navigable for any class of boats at all times.

The iron furnaces of Wood, Stacker, & Co., and those of Dickson county, furnish a quality of iron equal, if not superior to any in the United States. The immediate vicinity affords an ample supply of white oak, walnut, maple, and other necessary woods, while the mountains higher up on the Cumberland furnish pine, cherry, etc. Bituminous coal of excellent quality can be obtained from the mines of the Hon. J. Bell, also in the vicinity; and the forests yield an inexhaustible supply of charcoal. The climate and situation of the country are highly favorable to health, while the Cumberland river with suitable works can be made to yield an inexhaustible supply of water power. The advantage too of this improvement would be, while the works would supply water power equal to any in the United States, they would remove the only impediments to navigation existing from the mouth to the city of Nashville, which is growing to be one of the most important cities in the West. A railway is likewise in contemplation to extend from Nashville to the Georgia and South Carolina railroad. This completed, a national armory and

foundry established at the Harpeth Shoals would have access at all seasons of the year to the Gulf of Mexico, to the South and North Atlantic coasts, and to the western frontier, to the northern lakes and eastern States, without the danger of ever being reached by a foreign foe.

At the meeting of the Memphis Convention, a communication from the delegates from Mobile, Alabama, relative to the improvement of the harbor of that city, was referred to a committee to report upon. The communication alluded to embodies some facts respecting the obstructions which exist at the head of the bay of Mobile, preventing vessels from reaching the wharves of the city. As the question is one which affects interests not only of the city of Mobile, but of a great part of the State of Alabama, and of those portions of Georgia and Mississippi which send their produce to this market, and also those of the northern and eastern States engaged in the carrying trade, and as the improvement is indirectly connected with the military and naval defense of the Gulf of Mexico. the subject may be properly introduced here.

The bay of Mobile is the outlet to one of the most prolific cotton growing regions of the South. At present an annual product of over 500,000 bales of cotton is sent through this bay on its transit to Europe and the distant domestic ports. The value of this product may be estimated in round numbers at $17,000,000; yet owing to certain obstructions in the bay, caused by the deposits of the rivers emptying into it, the ships, often numbering as many as two hundred, which bear this precious freight to distant markets, are obliged to be at anchor twenty-five miles below the city. The consequence is, that freight is obliged to be carried to them by means of lighters, and the expense thus entailed may be estimated at from $150 to $200,000. This large sum is annually lost to the merchants and planters of South Alabama.

Government, some four years ago employed dredge boats on the bars of this bay, to keep the channel clear for small vessels; since then even this small part of its duty has been abandoned, and the harbor lies open to the accumulations and deposits which must necessarily gather in the channel.

The citizens of Mobile have caused examinations to be made as to the practicability of obtaining a sufficient depth of water for vessels; from which it appears that a depth of from 15 to 16 feet might be obtained at a cost not exceeding $800,000. It is believed the work is feasible; its importance is certainly beyond question, and the power of the government to perform it cannot for a moment be doubted. There is another reason for the improvement, viz.:—it would afford a harbor of refuge for our commerce safe from the devastations of a foreign foe.

It is doubted whether Fort Morgan, even if finished and effectually manned, would offer a complete impediment to the passage of a fleet of steam vessels, and the consequent capture of the entire mercantile marine in the harbor within. If the channel were deepened so as to allow large vessels to approach the city, it would be more effectual to their preservation in time of war, than three times the cost of the works spent in defenses of the entrance of the bay.

It is evident that the chief means of defense of the South and West are essentially naval in their character, and that the security of the country and its power to repel and punish intruders, do not consist in the number of its armed ships and the size of its fleets kept constantly in commission, but in the abundance of its naval resources and in the facility and promptness with which these resources can be put in action. It has been shown that the maritime strength and resources of the South and West are unequaled, and as great as the unparalleled natural powers and physical abilities of these favored regions; that the South and West furnish in abundance all the materials, implements and supplies necessary for building, equipping and subsisting the most formidable fleets propelled both by steam and wind; that the river commerce affords many thousand skilful, brave and hardy men, capable of managing vessels of every description, and that the land force of the country is immense, and of the best character. Such then being the facts, polic, dictates that immediate steps should be taken to develop and foster these resources, and to place them in such a condition that they can be rendered available at any emergency. All the requisite naval materials and supplies, most of which are of a character which can be preserved, should be collected and deposited at different places along the Gulf and South Atlantic cities, where they could be properly protected, and may be readily put in use. The steam navy of the country should be, as far as practicable, derived from the Mississippi valley, because of the great facilities afforded, and for the reason that government should be just and impartial in bestowing its patronage. Schools for instruction in naval construction and in naval steamery should be established at Memphis and other suitable places in the South and West. Finally, it is recommended that government should protect and encourage all improvements of communication, whether by railroads, canals, or rivers, by which troops and provisions can be promptly and safely transported from the great producing central portions of the South and West to the different exposed points on the South Atlantic and Gulf coasts.*

Art. V.—COMMERCE AND THE FINE ARTS.

In a work like this, appropriated to commercial subjects, and to the development of Southern and Western resources, it may be considered out of place to introduce an article on the arts which only

* The facts embraced in the above article were intended by the writer to be submitted in a report to the Memphis Convention. The papers of that Convention having been published, Mr. Troost, at our particular request, furnished his material in the form of an article for our Journal. We publish it with pleasure, with the hope of extending its circulation and usefulness. Information of the kind is always desirable, and is particularly appropriate to a work like ours. The writer requested us to acknowledge his indebtedness to John Harper, Esq., of Pittsburgh, for the information in relation to that place: and to Major W. H. Chase, United States Engineer, for other valuable suggestions. Mr. Troost deserves well of the South and West, for the elaborate information he has collected on interests of so great importance. We extend our pages to others who will unite in the good work.—Ed.

serve to embellish and refine public taste; but, as the graces attend at the shrine of beauty, so the arts of painting and sculpture adorn the triumphs of commerce, and build up eternal memorials of her conquests. They in turn are rewarded with the smiles of her munificence, and inspired with higher emulation. We would not impute to the pursuits of commerce an influence fatal to those sublime productions of genius, which have ever been the attendants on wealth, and the inseparable companions of civilization and refinement. They are not only the foster-children of commerce, but her handmaids; ministering to her pleasure, and directing her enterprise to the noblest objects.

It was the arts that first elevated Egypt above the nations of the earth, and laid the foundation of her fame, firm as the time-enduring pyramids. The history of her kings is lost in hieroglyphic lore, the vast treasures of her commerce have found other channels than the Nile, but the fragments of her temples, though strewed and scattered, still tell of her ancient splendor and high attainments in art. From thence went forth the spirit of refinement, and the temples of Thebes and Carnac, with their sculptured monuments and frescoed walls, were the academies, where the Greek and Phœnician merchant first studied those arts, that robed Tyre in purple, and raised on the Athenian Acropolis the model of architectural perfection.

The introduction of the arts into Greece, it is true, is obscured in the dim distance of a fabulous age; but it is a curious coincidence, that to Dædalus is ascribed the invention of wings, or sails to ships, by which commerce was extended—and he was also an architect, a sculptor, and the author of the Cretan labyrinth, which he copied from one in Egypt. Thus, we find the arts and trade freighted in the same ship, and wafted on the wings of the wind from the Nile to Attica; where, from the first rude statue in wood by Endæus, the disciple of Dædalus, to the perfection of sculpture under Phidias, during a period of eight hundred years, the arts struggled slowly to their maturity. Human genius developed at last its highest energies, and left to all succeeding ages an inimitable excellence, after which they aspire in vain.

We should delight to dwell upon the distinguished geniuses of this era—the golden age of the plastic and graphic arts; but our object is not a history of sculpture and painting, but their close association with commerce, and their mutual support and dependence upon each other. This, at a period so remote, can only be done by analogy and inference; by comparing the state of arts in those countries that carried on an active foreign trade, with others of a less liberal policy, though in other respects possessing equal advantages. For this purpose we have only to look at the history of Athens and Sparta, the capitals of two free states, situated in the same climate, and with similar institutions. So maritime was Athens in her pursuits, that Neptune is said to have contended with Minerva for the naming of the city; while Sparta, in the laws of Lycurgus, depreciating the value of money, adopted a policy inimical to all foreign trade. The Spartans, excluded from all intercourse with other nations, reared no monuments of taste, and left no name of high creative genius on the historic page. How otherwise with the Athenians. When Nep-

tune and Minerva disputed for the honor of giving the city a name, the gods decided that whichever bestowed upon the citizens the most useful gift should name it. Neptune bestowed a horse and Minerva an olive tree: the latter being considered the most valuable, the city was called Athenæ, one of the names of the goddess. She was also called Parthenos, on account of her virginity, and the temple they erected for her worship was called the Parthenon. In this temple, the perfection of architectural design, stood the celebrated statue of the goddess by Phidias, who also furnished the ornaments of its frieze, extending three hundred and eighty feet round the temple, and representing the procession of the Grecian states in chariots and on horseback, leading victims to sacrifice. These were carried to England by Lord Elgin, and are now known as the Elgin marbles.

"Tell not the deed to blushing Europe's ears:
The ocean queen, the free Britannia bears
The last poor plunder from a bleeding land."

CHIL. HAR., II. 13.

Thus the city whose commerce was only exceeded by her agriculture, reared those monuments of art which have delighted and instructed all ages, and still remain as beacon lights from the Acropolis, to guide the architect; and a lamp to the sculptor's studies in the British Museum.

To the cotemporaries and scholars of Phidias, of the same era, are we indebted for those unrivaled works of statuary, the fame of which has filled the world, and are indeed almost the only statues of which copies have found their way to America—we mean the Venus de Medicis, the Apollo Belvidere and the Laocoon. The sister art of painting also reached its highest perfection in this age, and the names of Apelles, Protogones, Aristides and others, have survived their works, like the perfume which flowers leave after they have been plucked from their stem.

At the time that Athens thus patronized the arts, the entire population of Attica was estimated at only 500,000, of whom 400,000 were slaves; and yet, so cherished were the arts, that it is said of Mummius, the Roman general, when he conquered Achaia, that he brought from Athens three thousand statues, the same number from Rhodes, and as many from Delphi.

Commerce was doubtless the cause of the Greeks advancing in civilization over other nations; and this was the result of their insular situation, and consequent maritime intercourse. Commerce in the Homeric age appears to have been principally in the hands of Phœnicia, of which Sidon was the great emporium. Navigation had been practised long before Homer, in small open vessels, nearly such as are still common in the Mediterranean. Sails were then in use, but the art of sailing was so rude that they required a fair wind; and no vessel ever ventured out without oars. Under commerce so limited, no wealth was acquired or taste diffused for the embellishment of society, and we are therefore not surprised to find in the Iliad no mention made of temples in Greece, except in the second book, which is evidently an interpolation at a subsequent period. The arts of Greece rose with its foreign trade, and were borne on the wings of Dædalus from Egypt and Phœnicia.

The Romans, as we have seen, introduced the arts by plunder and rapine. Their motto, "to the victors belong the spoils," was fully acted out; and so great was the accumulation of statuary, that it was said "the city contained more gods than men." Her artists were Greek captives or slaves, who never rose to that excellence which freedom fosters and commerce rewards. The servile creatures of imperial masters, they toiled in the drudgery of modeling faces they abhorred; unhonored in their profession, and unrewarded by the smiles of approbation. Thus their names have perished from history, and their only memorials are the statues of their tyrants, whose images we execrate more than admire. Neither painting nor statuary encircled with their civic wreaths the brow of imperial Rome. Her wealth was not gained by commerce, but by blood; and her arts were the spoils of nations. Even Pompeii and Herculaneum, her provincial towns, have furnished in their exhumation no specimens of native genius, and out of seven hundred paintings that have been brought from the entombment of two thousand years, not a single Roman subject has been found, to illustrate her history or honor the Pantheon of her worship.

We approach now an age over which the genius of history throws her radiance and exhibits in beautiful affiliation the pursuits of commerce and the fine arts—cherished in the lap of liberty and emulating each other in rearing up an imperishable fame for the free cities of Italy;—Venice, Genoa, Pisa and Florence, contended for the wealth of commerce and the highest prize of art; their merchant princes felt themselves honored by the society of Titian, Da Vinci, Raphael and Michael Angelo; and Lorenzo the magnificent Medici raised the power of his family not less by the patronage of art, than by the wealth of commerce. What would have been the treasured stores of Venice or Florence, had there been no architects to rear the marble palaces, no sculptors to enrich them with statues, or painters to decorate their walls? Their wealth would have perished with them, and left as traceless an evidence of their existence, as the Bedouin Arab leaves when he strikes his tent upon the sandy desert. Commerce ceases or finds new channels, but whenever she has fostered the arts that embellish, her investments pay a perennial interest, and secure for successive ages a distinction and renown as enduring as her monuments.

Where are now the palaces of the voluptuous Romans whose feasts cost an outlay of a thousand talents of gold? Where the Luculluses, that pandered to the stomach, and knew no higher appropriation of wealth than to wallow in sensuality? Not a stone tells where they lie; while the tombs of the Medici, under the gilded roof of San Lorenzo, with Day and Night, sculptured by the great Angelo, in his "Terrible Via," attract all eyes, and invite all nations to visit Florence. Florence and Venice are no longer cities of commerce; but so long as their arts endure, they will continue the resort of the intelligent, the pride of Italy, and the admiration of the world.

The subject of the revival of arts in Italy in the thirteenth century is too copious for an article like this. They sprung up in the time of the republics, and attained perfection after three centuries, just as

liberty was expiring under the feuds that raised so many petty princes to thrones.

In entering upon an age so remarkable for great men in every branch of the arts, we naturally inquire, whence arose such a galaxy of genius, and why they endured but for a century, to be followed by a long and starless night, or night dimly illumined by the faint rays of aspiring intelligence? Why Da Vinci, Raphael, Coreggio, Titian, Tintoretto, Paul Veronese, Guido and the Caracci, should have followed each other in such rapid succession, to be succeeded by a race so very inferior? Where do we find the secret of this cotemporary greatness, but in the *patronage given to genius?*—While the peaceful pursuits of commerce occupied the cities of Italy, their surplus wealth went to foster the arts; but when great riches accumulated in some families, ambition prompted them to grasp at power; anarchy ensued, and the refining pursuits of life were lost in the bloody strife of war. The conquerors did not, however, lose their national taste by the acquisition of thrones, but were the better enabled to indulge their inclination, and gather round themselves those bright intellects whose presence graced and whose labors adorned the pageantry of their power. Thus, while they elevated talent to more than a level with titled greatness, they excited emulation and opened a field for the development of the most expansive minds. The artist, no longer limited to his own narrow resources or a beggarly patronage, united the energies of his unfettered genius, and wrought for immortality. But when the wars that desolated Europe left to princes no time for the cultivation of liberal arts, genius languished in neglect, and ceased its bright creations.

If space admitted, we would gladly review the decadence of the arts in Italy, Spain and Holland; with the decline of free institutions and free trade; and their nascent state and progress in France and England during the last half century, under a more liberal policy and an expanded commerce. Whether the protracted wars of Europe did more for the suppression or the diffusion of art, may be a question difficult to answer; but we have no doubt that the spoliation of Italy by Napoleon, and the collection of works of such surprising excellence into one gallery—the Louvre—did more for the revival of arts in France, than any patronage afforded by the emperor. So deep a hold had they taken on the public feeling, that the Bourbons were almost forced into the allowance of a pension to artists. Louis Phillippe has perhaps strengthened his throne more by the magnificent gallery he has collected at Versailles, than by the fortifications with which he has surrounded Paris. From the same cause—the spoliation of Spain, Holland and Italy by the officers of all the contending armies—the arts were diffused over Austria, Germany, Russia, Sweden and England. The Duke of Wellington, Marshal Soult, and others, still exhibit in their palaces the trophies of their campaigns in those countries; and even some of the fragments of the despoiled countries found their way to America through the hands of Joseph Bonaparte, and have had a beneficial influence on our own taste.

But England is chiefly indebted for her present acknowledged proficiency in art, to the patronage of her higher classes and to her

commercial prosperity. Whatever the noble Earl of Stafford and Lord Grosvenor may have done for the promotion of art, was rivaled in the patronage of Mr. Angersteen and Mr. Roscoe, who drew their resources from commercial enterprise.

In approaching our own time and country, we pause, lest by comparison we may do injustice to worth, and wound the feelings of modest merit. We are not, however, without names high in the profession, and liberal in patronizing it.

"Certainly we have in these days," says Mrs. Jameson, "mean ideas about painting—mean and false ideas! It has become an object of luxury and connoisseurship, or vertu: unless it be addressed to our personal vanity, or to the puerile taste for ornament, show, furniture—it is nothing. The noble art which was once recognized as the priestess of nature, as a great moral power capable of acting on the senses and the imagination of assembled human beings—as such applied by the lawgivers of Greece, and by the clergy of the Catholic Church—how is it now vulgarized in its object! how narrowed in its application!"

We notice these remarks, not because they are unqualifiedly true, but they intimate the truth. In an age like this, when mechanical ingenuity is launching its engines against the winds and the tide, when the avenues to fortune are as wide as the portals of our liberty; securing to every man, not only the fruits of his labor, but inviting him to contend for the highest honors of the state; it is not surprising that these subjects and pursuits should occupy the public mind almost to the exclusion of literature and the fine arts. We do not therefore complain, that "those arts that polish life" are neglected, but would vindicate them from the reproach of inutility; of ministering only to the gratification of vanity or the pleasure of the rich.

"Life must always languish in the hands of the idle," says Blair. "It will frequently languish even in the hands of the active, if they have not some employment, subsidiary to that which forms their main pursuit. How, then, shall these vacant spaces, those unemployed intervals be filled up? He who is so happy as to have acquired a relish for objects of taste and for the study of the arts, has always at hand an innocent and irreproachable amusement for his leisure hours, to save him from many a pernicious passion.

"Providence seems plainly to have pointed out this useful purpose, to which the pleasures of taste may be applied, by interposing them in a middle station between the pleasures of sense and those of pure intellect." "The pleasures of taste refresh the mind after the toils of the intellect and the labors of abstract study; and they gradually raise it above the attachments of sense, and prepare it for the enjoyment of virtue.

"A cultivated taste increases sensibility to all the tender and humane passions, by giving them frequent exercise, while it tends to weaken the more violent and fierce emotions."

"——Ingenuas didicisse fideliter artes
Emollet mores, nec sinit esse feros."
HORACE.

Those polished arts have humanized mankind,
Soften'd the rude, and calmed the boisterous mind.

Taste is defined by Blair to be "the power of receiving pleasure from the beauties of nature and of art." It may be in some degree inherent in the mind, but is certainly susceptible of high cultivation, which can only be acquired by being conversant with pictures and statuary, and studying the works of the most distinguished artists.

SOUTHERN AND WESTERN COMMERCE, STATISTICS, AGRICULTURE, &c.

1.—COTTON MANUFACTURES IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

The facilities for the admission of this kind of enterprise in South Carolina have always been considered very great. Nature has done all that could be required, and capitalists, in numbers sufficiently large, are not wanting. There is a spare population, too, which might very well be employed in this pursuit. Perhaps no step would contribute more to the prosperity of that old State than this very one of introducing *legitimate* home manufactures. We say this without any reference to the tariff question. South Carolina appears to have lately had her attention attracted to the subject. Meetings have been called in Charleston, and legislative action in the way of charters been had. The State will be indebted to Wm. Gregg, Esq., one of its enterprising citizens, for the course he has taken in bringing the matter before the public in his "Essays," and in practically exemplifying at his own Vaucluse factory, how much may be effected and with how little effort. We would indeed be obliged to Mr. Gregg if he would furnish us a statement of the present manufacturing system of South Carolina, and his views in relation to its future extension. Such an exhibit would be of very general interest.

2.—SAVANNAH, GA.

We glean the following, in relation to this important city, from the papers published in connection with Secretary Walker's late report.

EXPORTS OF COTTON, 1844–5.

	To Foreign Ports.	Coastwise.
Upland	175,965 bags	120,570
Sea Island	6,108 "	1,901
Total	304,544 bales.	

EXPORTS OF RICE, 1844–5.

To Great Britain	1,175 casks.
To France, etc.	728 "
To the West Indies	10,499 "
Coastwise	15,830 "
Total	28,232

VALUE OF EXPORTS.

296,535 bales of Upland Cotton at $21	$6,227,235
8,009 bales of Sea Island Cotton at $70	560,630
28,232 casks of Rice at $20	564,640
Total	$7,352,505

"With these facts before them," says a Savannah paper of late date, "what will Congress do for the trade and commerce of Savannah? We would say what they ought to do: establish a warehouse system, fortify our harbor in such a way as to defy hostile attacks, and withhold not mail facilities from a city whose commercial prosperity is onward."

3.—ST. LOUIS STEAMERS.

Statement of steamboats built at St. Louis, of boats built elsewhere for St. Louis, and of boats purchased and brought into the St. Louis trade in 1845, furnished by Mr. I. A. Hedges, Surveyor of the port.

BOATS BUILT AT ST. LOUIS.

Names.	Tonnage.	Cost.
Governor Briggs	91	$9,000
Laclede	239	20,000
Missouri	887	45,000
Iowa	249	22,000
Dial	140	7,000
Helen	61	8,000
Prairie Bird	213	17,000
Little Dove	77	5,500
Ocean Wave	205	17,000
Convoy	750	39,000
Total	2912 tons	$189,500

BUILT ELSEWHERE, FOR ST. LOUIS OWNERS.

Boreas No. 2, Pittsburgh	222	$20,500
Nebraska "	149	15,500
War Eagle, Cincinnati	156	14,000
Time, Louisville	109	6,500
Windsor, "	196	16,000
Wiota, Elizabethtown	219	17,000
Odd Fellow, Smithland	98	7,500
Pride of the West, Cincinnati	371	20,000
Total	1520 tons	$117,000

PURCHASED FOR THE ST. LOUIS TRADE.

Falcon, of Beaver	144	$6,000
Fortune, of Louisville	101	6,000
Balloon, of New Albany	154	6,000
Radnor, of Jeffersonville	163	6,000
Cecilia, of Pittsburgh	112	3,000
North Bend, of do	120	4,000
Archer, of do	148	9,000
Amulet, of Wheeling	56	2,500
Tioga, of do	171	4,000
Tributary, of Pittsburgh	149	8,000
Lehigh, of do	188	4,500
Cumberland Valley, of Smithland	168	2,000
Total	1674	$61,000
Total addition to St. Louis tonnage	6106 tons. Total cost,	$367,500

4.—GEORGIA RAILROADS.

The following, which we take from the Augusta Constitutionalist, gives some idea of the rapid enterprise of our friends of Georgia. We had hoped to furnish a similar exhibit of the Carolina roads, but have not been able to obtain the report made a few days ago, by Colonel Gadsden, on the subject. We therefore postpone it for our next issue.

Central railroad, from Savannah to Macon, finished	192 miles.
Georgia railroad, from Augusta to Atlanta, finished	170 "
Western & Atlantic railroad, from Atlanta to Dawsonville, finished	80 "
Total, finished	442 "

To be finished in six, and in less than twelve months:

Macon and Western railroad, from Macon to Atlanta	101 "
Western and Atlantic railroad, from Dawsonville to Cross Plains	22 "
Total unfinished	123 "
Already finished, as above	442 "
Total, finished and unfinished	565 "

It should be stated that the Macon and Western railroad has been in operation several years, for the distance of 59 miles, and is now undergoing thorough repair in the hands of a new and strong company.

The Macon and Western railroad is virtually an extension of the Central railroad. Atlanta is the common point at which the Georgia railroad and the Macon and Western railroad terminate. The Western and Atlantic railroad is the extension of both to the westward, and when it reaches Cross Plains, the works of internal improvements in the State will be completed within fifteen miles of the southern boundary of the State of Tennessee.

5.—CENTRAL SOUTHERN RAILWAY.

C. J. Forshey, Esq., Engineer, has submitted a paper on the subject of a railway extending through Louisiana westward from the Mississippi. Such a road was projected as far as Alexandria, La., in 1837, and a charter obtained, but the monetary depression of the country prevented any steps being taken at that time. The charter has now expired. Mr. Forshey bases his estimates of expense upon the present value of railroad iron, $80 per ton, and fifty tons to the mile, $4,000.

	No. Miles.		Cost per Mile.	Total.	Bridges and C'lverts.
From Vidalia, opposite Natchez, along the southern shore of Lake Concordia, to beyond Chotard's Fields, grade of seven feet the first two miles, remainder level	8		$6,500	52,000	
Thence in a right line to Forks of Cocodra	2½		7,300	18,250	750
Thence along south side Bayou and Turtle Lake to Cross Lake	5		8,000	40,000	1,000
Thence down Caney and Brushey Bayous, to Tensas River, on the ridges and best grounds—no grades	5½		7,000	37,500	
Thence down Tensas, and by a ridge back of Percy's, across the bend, to the mouth of Tensas	5		8,000	40,000	1,000
Grand total to mouth of Tensas	26	mean	7,221	187,750	2,750
Trinity is opposite the mouth of Tensas, with the Ouachita on one side and the Ocatahoola on the other. The river must be crossed by a ferry, the locomotive on each side returning					
From Trinity there are two routes proposed. The one up the south side of Ocatahoola river and lake, and up the ridge south of Bayou Flaccon to Red River, at Alexandria. It would not differ materially in cost from the one estimated below.					
From Trinity, north-west, to the base of the Pine Hills, at an inlet of the Bushley: three miles low swamp	8		9,000	72,000	1,000
Thence along base of bluffs, north side of lake, crossing small streams and Hemphill's Creek to Little River, with a swamp two miles wide	25		9,500	237,500	5,000
Little River, with two miles of high embankment	2		10,500	21,000	10,000
Thence up Bayou Flaccon Valley	14		8,500	119,000	2,000
Thence to Red River at Alexandria	6		10,000	60,000	
Grand total from mouth of Tensas to Alexandria	55	mean	9,260	509,500	18,000
The Red River must be crossed by a ferry, being a navigable stream.					
Thence, on the Texas route, up Bayou Rapides, and west to Bayou Cotile	20		8,000	160,000	5,000
Grand total from Vidalia, La., to Bayou Cotile, La.	101	mean	8,477	857,250	25,750

Beyond this point the present demands for a railway would not justify the construction, though the cost to the Sabine, 54 miles, would not exceed $10,000 per mile. But to Bayou Cotile it is much needed, and would pay well at present.

6.—RAILROAD FROM THE MISSISSIPPI WEST.

The Concordia Intelligencer, one of the best papers in Louisiana, or perhaps in the South and West, so far as the interests of agriculture and internal improvements are concerned, contains the following observations. We introduce them here, not that our enterprise extends as far as that of our friend Mr. Patterson, but because we think he has pointed out the course which events at no distant period will take.

"We understand that it is in contemplation to apply to our Legislature, at an early day, for a charter for a railroad from Vidalia on the Mississippi to Alexandria on the Red River, with the privilege to continue the road farther west or north-west, as the prospect of remuneration may direct. Such a road, if built, would form an important link in the great central Southern railway chain extending from Charleston west, and would thus, independently of the wealth of its own trade, receive a valuable remunerative support from the increased trade and travel to the Mississippi from the East. But let us barely glance at the benefits which this road would bring with it to the section of country which it would penetrate and connect itself with.

"Starting from its eastern terminus at Vidalia, Concordia parish, it would go into Catahoula, giving its facilities to the great body of the citizens of these two parishes, and to those of Caldwell and Franklin, all of whom can reach the line of road with their products without difficulty, at any period in the year. The same facilities would be embraced by the extensive line of settlements on the Tensas and Bayou Macon, by a large portion of the lower Ouachita, and all the settlements on Little River. Going onward through the large and fertile parish of Rapides, it would strike Red River at one of its most important points—Alexandria, which is the centre of a large and rapidly increasing trade. From Alexandria it could no doubt be made highly advantageous and profitable in a north-western course, as high up as Caddo parish, running through a rich and highly improved country, to which it would be the means of wealth, by taking its products to market at seasons when they could command the best prices. Returning by the route described, through Alexandria and a large portion of Rapides across the Trinity and Tensas, it would enable the whole population of the various settlements before mentioned, to send the valuable products of their soil to the bank of the Mississippi river, and thence to a market, without delay from any cause, any time that prices or other considerations might induce them to do so."

FOREIGN COMMERCE.

1.—UNITED STATES IMPORTS FOR 1845.

As the Tariff of 1842, according to present indications, will soon be removed, and a new one, on different principles, substituted, it is well to refer to the statistics of our imports under its action for the past year. We give them on the authority of one of our exchanges:

Imports of Foreign Articles Free of Duty.

Gold and silver	$4,070,242
Tea, 19,830,045lbs.	5,730,514
Coffee, 107,880,911 lbs.	6,221,271
Copper	1,264,227
Brass	13,702
Dyewood	608,408
Barilla	23,917
Burr stones, unwrought	32,624
Crude Brimstone	108,619
All other articles	3,320,206
	$22,097,940

Paying Duties ad Valorem.

Manufactures of wool	10,057,575
" of cotton	13,898,292
Silk and worsted goods	1,516,210
Camlets and manufactures of goat's hair and mohair	228,626
Silk floss, and manufactures not specified	1,027,841
Lace, thread and cotton	1,121,997
Lace, gold and silver, &c.	26,434
Manufactures of flax	4,923,109
Manufactures of hemp	607,263
Clothing ready made and articles of wear	1,173,084
Grass cloth and carpeting	50,050
Grass matting and mats	126,138
Wire, brass, copper, and plated	18,256
Fire and side armor	146,155
Manufactures of iron and steel	4,623,599
Manufactures of copper	107,764
Manufactures of brass	130,803
Manufactures of iron	13,131
Manufactures of other metals	28,517
Saddlery	259,247
Manufactures of leather not specified	109,981
Manufactures of wood	176,097
Glass, above 22 × 14 inches	80,253
Glass, silvered, framed and other	371,375
Hats and bonnets, leghorn, straw, chip, palm-leaf	705,838
China, porcelain, earthen, stone, &c. wares	2,655,537
Furs, undressed	229,252
Fur hats and muffs	16,246
Furs, hatters' and others	495,729

Hair cloth and seating	90,403
Brushes of all kinds	67,426
Paper hanging	46,525
Slates of all kinds	121,789
Black lead pencils	11,788
Copper bottoms, cut round, &c.	3,455
Zinc in plates	78,809
Chronometers and clocks	89,898
Watches and parts of watches	1,106,543
Manufactures of gold and silver	39,880
Jewelry	139,539
Quicksilver	54,998
Buttons, metals and others	109,280
Teas imported from other places than their growth	31,274
Coffee imported from other places than its growth	22,291
Corks	96,822
Quills	2,267
Wood, unmanufactured, mahogany, rose, &c.	286,662
Wool, unmanufactured, not exceeding 7 cents per lb., 23,262,077lbs.	1,563,789
Wool, unmanufactured, exceeding 7 cents per lb., 420,943 lbs.	136,005

Articles not enumerated.

At 1	per cent	212,975
At 2½	do	1,090,490
At 5	do	4,975,008
At 7	do	33,576
At 7½	do	29,685
At 10	do	170,641
At 12½	do	253
At 15	do	292,873
At 20	do	2,290,397
At 25	do	1,108,284
At 30	do	1,083,616
At 35	do	47,701
		$60,191,982

Paying Specific Duties.

Silks	8,900,870
Silk shoes, slippers, &c., 4,047 pairs	3,071
Silk hats and bonnets, 5,884	17,949
Woolens	176,887
Carpeting	131,914
Sail duck	271,031
Bagging, of cotton and hemp	117,331
do. of other materials	11,194
Floor Cloth, patent printed, &c.	5,714
Oil cloth, furniture and other	27,150
Wines	1,470,186
Foreign distilled spirits	1,191,120
Beer, ale, and porter	96,346
Vinegar	6,252
Molasses	3,154,782
Oils—olive, in casks	48,579
do. linseed	105,574
do. all other	3,779
Cocoa	92,189
Chocolate	1,927
Sugar	4,780,555
Fruits—almonds, currants, raisins, &c.	1,075,095
Nuts, except those used for dyeing	68,732
Spices of all sorts	506,921
Ginger	28,434
Camphor	143,542
Cheese	8,941
Pearl barley	1,739
Beef and pork	1,039
Hams and bacon	3,549
Bristles	17,276
Saltpetre	90,365
Indigo	894,700
Wood and pastel	3,194
Ivory black	1,243
Opium	37,628
Glue	1,275
Gunpowder	2,284
Bleaching powder	73,174
Cotton	944,886
White Angora and other goat's hair	18,443
Cigars	1,100,644
Dry ochre and in oil	22,186
Red and white lead	14,744
Cordage	89,690
Twine and pack thread	145,289
Seines	5,298
Hemp	145,209
Manil. Sun. and other hemps of India	238,179
Jute, Sisal, grass, coir, &c., used as hemp for cordage	108,717
Cordilla, or tow of hemp and flax	46,602
Flax, unmanufactured	90,509
Rags of all kinds	421,080
Manufactures of glass	140,301
Demijohns	5,408
Patent sheathing metal	5,874
Pins	45,078
Muskets and rifles	16,185
Wire—iron and steel, cap and bonnet, etc.	98,661
Manufactures of iron—wood screws, nails, spikes, cables, chains, wrought iron for ships, locomotives, and steam engines—malleable iron, etc., etc.	156,644
Manufactures of iron and steel	738,707
Iron in pigs	508,291
do. old and scrap	119,740
do. bar, manufactured by rolling	1,884,748
do. do. do. otherwise	872,186
Steel	775,675
Leather, sole and upper	1,151
do. gloves	649,382
do. boots and shoes	42,250
Skins—tanned and dressed	114,497
do. do. and not dressed	12,826
Paper	67,724
Books, pamphlets, etc.	229,302
Coal	223,919
Salt	886,663
Potatoes	8,946
Fish—dried or smoked	9,646
do. pickled	280,519
Articles not enumerated	86,801
	$34,914,852

Total.

Duty free	$22,097,840
do ad valorem	60,191,982
do specific	34,914,852
	$117,204,534

The exports of foreign merchandise in 1845 amounted to $15,346,830. Sold in this country, $101,907,734. Exports of domestic produce in 1845, $98,456,330.

FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC STATISTICS OF TRADE, &c.

1.—COTTON.

GENERAL STATEMENT OF IMPORT INTO GREAT BRITAIN DURING THE LAST TEN YEARS.

	Atlantic States.	N. Orleans, Mobile, etc.	Total U. States.	Brazil.	Demerara and Berbice	W. Indies, etc.	Egypt.	East Indies.	Grand Total.
Liverpool	495,672	881,222	1,376,894	110,176	....	6,314	79,707	79,640	1,652,731
London	....	....	5,300	....	....	1,400	200	61,400	68,300
Bristol and Hull	....	....	18,400	....	....	....	....	4,700	23,100
Glasgow	....	....	99,000	....	....	1,100	2,100	9,400	111,600
Total 1845	495,672	881,222	1,499,594	110,176	....	8,814	82,007	155,140	1,855,731
1844	493,697	735,776	1,229,473	112,328	....	17,410	67,033	230,761	1,656,905
1843	489,110	907,461	1,396,571	98,726	114	19,509	46,506	191,992	1,743,418
1842	346,057	672,671	1,018,728	85,655	135	19,776	18,245	255,129	1,397,668
1841	277,214	624,979	902,192	90,637	595	34,366	40,054	274,984	1,342,528
1840	434,642	810,365	1,245,007	83,991	517	21,789	37,112	216,495	1,607,911
1839	347,111	466,504	813,125	97,656	1,494	36,583	31,576	131,731	1,112,165
1838	451,009	672,163	1,124,192	137,499	1,880	30,318	28,461	108,879	1,431,229
1837	327,739	517,449	845,188	116,605	2,436	27,652	39,329	145,063	1,176,273
1836	384,183	381,053	765,236	148,093	3,167	32,586	32,946	219,157	1,201,185

STATEMENT OF STOCK OF COTTON AT THE CLOSE OF THE LAST SIX YEARS.

Descriptions.	Liverpool.	London.	Glasgow	TOTAL IN THE KINGDOM.					
	1845.	1845.	1845.	1845.	1844.	1843.	842.	1841.	1840.
Sea Island						4,400	3,450	5,390	6,170
Stained do	159,600	1,700	19,500	180,800	145,821	800	1,080	1,240	480
Upland						131,300	88,280	68,090	98,010
Mobile and Alabama	464,600	2,600	45,100	512,300	396,041	119,200	53,380	56,500	62,830
New Orleans						227,500	136,250	147,880	137,490
Pernambuco, &c.	16,800	....	....	16,800	26,931	....	18,770	17,010	9,070
Bahia and Maceio	11,800	....	....	11,800	11,810	68,300	10,870	8,530	5,670
Maranham	23,600	100	....	23,700	23,890	....	27,850	18,940	7,760
Peruvian	....	....	....	....	....	....	2,490	2,990	5,540
Egyptian	62,300	100	5,500	67,900	41,383	28,000	21,720	30,910	21,810
Surat and Madras	141,200	87,000	12,200	240,400	235,517	191,700	146,470	138,280	80,120
Other descriptions	5,500	800	400	6,700	14,534	14,600	50,820	35,610	29,090
Total	885,400	92,300	82,700	1,060,400	895,927	785,800	561,430	539,260	464,050

EXPORT AND CONSUMPTION OF COTTON IN GREAT BRITAIN FOR FOUR YEARS.

	EXPORT.				CONSUMPTION.			
	Liverpool.	L'nd'n	Other Pts	Total.	1844.	1843.	1842.	1845.	1844.	1843.	1842.
American	68,200	51,400	3,200	122,800	76,650	52,350	62,000	1,289,806	1,099,330	1,114,772	918,978
Brazil					2,100	1,300	3,450	113,984	115,697	80,444	68,415
W. India					460	1,190	2,350	17,212	15,490	25,532	24,491
Egyptian					300	200	100	55,194	54,155	40,300	27,175
EastIndia					70,550	61,160	70,100	99,178	120,988	111,384	156,290
Total	68,200	51,400	3,200	122,800	150,000	116,200	138,000	1,574,304	1,405,560	1,372,432	1,195,353

PRICES OF COTTON AT LIVERPOOL.

	1845.	1844.		1845.	1844.
Orl'ns & Mobile—ord.	3½ @ 3¾	3½ @ 3¾	Sea Island		
Middling	4½ @ 4¼	4 @ 4¼	Stain'd&saw gin.	5 @ 10	5 @ 10
Fair	4½ @ 4¾	4¾ @ 4¾	Ordinary	10½ @ 11½	10 @ 10½
Good fair	5 @ 5½	4¾ @ 5	Middling	12 @ 12½	11 @ 11½
Good	5½ @ 6	5½ @ 6	Fair	13½ @ 14	12 @ 12½
Choice gin marks	6½ @ 7½	6½ @ 7	Good fair	14½ @ 15	13 @ 14
Upland—ordinary	3½ @ 3¾	3½ @ 3½	Good and fine	15½ @ 24	14½ @ 24
Middling	3¾ @ 4	3¾ @ 4	Surat—ordinary	2¾ @ 2¾	2¼ @ 2¼
Fair	4½ @ 4½	4½ @ 4½	Middling	3 @ 3½	2¾ @ 2¾
Good fair	4½ @ 4½	4½ @ 4½	Fair	3½ @ 3½	3 @ 3½
Good	4¾ @ 5	4¾ @ 5	Good fair	3¾ @ 3½	3¼ @ 3¾
			Good	3¾ @ 3¾	3¾ @ 3¾

2.—AMERICAN TOBACCO.

A COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE STOCKS, IMPORTS, AND DELIVERIES OF TOBACCO IN LIVERPOOL, THE LAST TEN YEARS.

STOCK 1st January.	IMPORTS. Virginia.	New Orle's.	Baltimore.	Other Ports.	Total.	DELIVERIES. Home use.	Irel'nd	Exp'n	Coast wise.	Total.	STOCK 31st Decem.
1836	8,878	6,693	3,430	....	141	10,264	4,523	2,194	1,997	585	9,239	9,903
1837	9,903	3,830	2,235	....	35	6,100	4,450	2,624	2,115	1,121	10,313	5,690
1838	5,690	5,535	2,515	....	298	8,348	4,918	1,972	1,140	828	8,858	5,180
1839	5,190	6,151	3,379	55	1,153	10,738	4,503	2,080	1,423	879	8,685	7,233
1840	7,233	6,665	3,834	13	209	10,721	4,385	3,074	1,976	995	10,430	7,524
1841	7,524	4,462	2,205	77	799	10,543	3,789	2,626	1,227	872	8,514	9,553
1842	9,553	5,178	7,580	....	371	13,129	3,907	2,579	2,389	1,036	9,921	12,761
1843	12,761	4,952	7,530	....	1,350	13,732	4,777	2,761	2,100	1,411	11,049	15,444
1844	15,444	4,804	6,976	47	614	12,441	4,986	3,547	1,760	1,319	11,612	16,273
1845	16,273	5,815	6,959	....	596	13,370	4,377	3,406	2,048	2,510	12,341	17,302

The total annual sales and their distribution were as follows:

	1845.	1844.	1843.	1842.	1841.	1840.	1839.	1838.
To manufacturers	5,994	5,450	5,738	4,881	4,142	5,913	3,483	6,824
For Ireland and Scotland	5,394	4,214	2,986	2,951	2,944	2,858	1,910	2,000
For exportation	2,189	1,234	2,327	2,271	1,707	1,721	1,189	1,650
On speculation	907	1,447	1,260	990	1,628	1,140	500	4,000
Total sales	14,494	13,045	12,739	11,493	9,921	11,632	6,982	14,474

Particulars of Leaf and Stemmed imported during the last ten years, and the stock on sale at the close of each year.

IMPORTS.

	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.
Virginia leaf	3,947	1,408	2,809	3,521	3,739	3,606	2,605	1,105	988	1,862
stemmed	3,479	2,422	2,973	2,461	2,926	1,143	1,909	2,112	2,346	4,222
Kentucky leaf	740	219	518	847	811	1,271	726	4,925	2,016	1,814
stemmed	2,705	2,016	2,241	3,144	3,023	4,468	6,979	1,909	4,965	5,472
Other sorts	93	35	7	745	222	35	4	—	13	—
Not sampled	—	—	—	—	—	—	906	3,698	2,143	—
	10,964	6,100	8,548	10,738	10,721	10,543	13,129	13,732	12,441	13,370

STOCKS ON SALE.

Virginia leaf	3,279	653	572	1,074	1,929	3,900	1,744	1,618	1,231	1,596
stemmed	1,625	1,497	1,052	2,076	2,052	1,012	852	1,788	2,252	3,213
Kentucky leaf	530	186	160	194	230	725	281	3,015	3,819	2,921
stemmed	2,079	946	342	2,060	1,233	3,215	6,657	3,712	5,402	5,042
Not yet sampled	46	—	—	171	43	35	29	—	8	4,530
	7,559	3,282	2,126	5,586	5,867	7,787	9,634	10,163	12,903	17,302

Deducting from this the large quantity unsampled, and the portion of the stock estimated to be held in second hands, it would appear that the stock actually on the market at this date for sale is as follows:—

Of Virginia leaf	1,150	against	1,309	in 1844	1,618	in 1843	1,744	in 1842	2,787	in 1841	1,929	in 1840.
Do. stemmed	2,627	"	2,350	"	1,788	"	852	"	1,029	"	2,025	"
Western leaf	2,070	"	3,806	"	3,015	"	261	"	718	"	238	"
Do. stemmed	4,286	"	5,360	"	3,712	"	6,657	"	3,225	"	1,331	"
Other descriptions	—	"	7	"	—	"	20	"	24	"	43	"
	10,256		12,817		10,133		9,634		7,783		5,566	

	1846.	1844.	1843.	1842.	1841.	1840.	1839.	1838.
Stock in London 31st December	27,200	21,700	20,000	19,400	19,778	12,900	12,450	10,900
Liverpool	17,302	16,273	15,444	12,761	9,553	7,594	7,283	5,120
Bristol, Hull, and Newcastle	1,738	1,500	1,600	1,750	1,435	1,100	1,280	1,840
Scotland	1,200	1,280	1,500	1,540	1,460	1,200	1,230	1,600
Ireland	2,250	2,000	1,900	1,900	1,450	1,400	1,500	1,350
Total in Great Britain	49,690	42,673	40,944	37,391	33,676	24,194	23,773	20,950

3.—AMERICAN AND FOREIGN RAILROADS.

From the returns recently compiled by order of Parliament, from documents in the possession of the Board of Trade and other public departments, it appears that the total amount of capital that has been expended in the construction of railways, in different countries, stood as follows at the close of 1843:

	Miles.	Amount.	Average per mile.
Great Britain	2,069½	£64,238,630	£31,048
Belgium	343	5,872,160	17,120
France	552	10,276,000	18,617
Germany	1,997½	15,500,000	7,500
America	3,688	17,702,400	4,800
Total	8,650	£113,589,160	£13,131

For railways in actual progress in Great Britain an estimated capital of £74,407,520 was raising, in order to construct 3,543 miles of line sanctioned by acts of 1844 and 1845. In France, £44,866,990 for new lines, extending over 2,410 miles. In Germany, £18,000,000 for 2,347½ miles; and in America, £96,995,200 for 5,624 miles. The calculation shows that England contributes £138,646,150 out of the whole capital of £277,858,850 expended and expending, or exactly 50 per cent., the length of the projected railways being 5,612½ miles in this country, out of the grand total of 22,574½ miles, or close upon 25 per cent. of their united lengths.

4.—THOMASTON, MAINE.

There are in Thomaston, Me., one hundred and thirty-two lime-kilns, which, during the summer season, are in continual operation. The following table will show the estimated expense of manufacturing the lime of last season, together with its average sale at the kilns and expense of exportation:

633,600 casks rock at kiln, at 16 cents	$101,376 00
633,600 casks, paid for burning 8 cents	50,688 00
633,600 lime casks, 16 cents	101,376 00
42,708 cords of wood at $3	128,304 00
Total	$381,744 00
633,600 sold at the kilns at 65 cents	411,840 00
633,600 freight for transporting, 20 cents	126,720 00
Cost at market	$538,560 00

This is a good mode of transmuting rock into silver and gold.

THE PUBLISHING BUSINESS.

GALLERY OF FINE ARTS: *Supplementary Catalogue to the National Gallery, 13 St. Charles St., New Orleans.*

We take occasion, on turning over the leaves of this catalogue on our table, to refer to the interesting exhibition of paintings which is now being made in this city by Mr. Cooke. It would be vain at this period to portray the refining influences of the arts upon society, a fact which has come to be so generally understood. Mr. Cooke's gallery furnishes material for many hours of pleasure and study and real improvement. We could single out masterpieces in the collection were it necessary, and indulge ourselves in the elevated office of criticism. The elaborate and spacious painting of the "Wreck of the Medusa," we have contemplated over and over with renewed pleasure, in connection with the thrilling narrative of the wreck prepared by Mr. Cooke himself. We are really solicitous that this enterprise in New Orleans should meet with the most liberal encouragement and support.

Grouped Thoughts and Scattered Fancies. By the author of "Atalantis, etc.: Richmond, Va., 1845.

William Gilmore Simms has been known for many years to the American people as an author of established reputation and high desert. His productions have delighted the reading public from Maine to Louisiana, and have crossed the ocean to acquire popularity with the booksellers of London. We are indebted to him for many an hour of enjoyment even from our earliest recollections. Some of his productions have had the greatest popularity, and the high merit of developing

truthfully the peculiarities of Southern life and manners. We have only to mention "The Partisan," "Melichampe," "Guy Rivers," "Richard Hurdis," and others of deep interest. At his age, we will venture to say, that there is no man in the country who has written more than Mr. Simms. His industry and resources are never at fault. In his late sphere of historian he has been equally popular, and we could wish that Mr. Simms would devote more of his attention to this important branch of literature. His success in the "History of South Carolina," and in the "Life of Marion," should stimulate him to new effort.

We have, however, before us a small collection of Mr. Simms' "Sonnets," which are published in a very unpretending way. They are full of thought and sentiment, and some of them are highly finished pictures. Did space permit us we should go into an analysis of their merits. A single specimen must suffice, which we select as it calls up many local attachments and pleasing memories:

THE ANCIENT RIVULET.

Sit thee beside me for awhile and rest
On these green marges of the slope, and hear
As yon sky-brooklet sends up to the ear
Its chaunt of murmurs, like a strain repressed
By sobbings of the heart that pours it out!—
I mind me, friend, that it is now about
Some thirteen summers since I laid me down
Beside this little streamlet as I left,
Grieving with boyhood's heart, my native town!
To this I now return, of youth bereft,
And thorns about my head in place of crown—
Then all was "lo! the triumph!" in my breast,
My thought, heart, eye, on one achievement set—
Now all is changed save this poor rivulet

Reports and Proceedings of the Memphis Convention.—The work has come to us at last, and is welcome to our table. It is full of information on practical subjects of deep interest to the South and West. We regret that notwithstanding the delay in publication, many signal errors have crept into the work. In Mr. Pope's paper on agriculture, which we publish in our present number, we had to make several corrections. Mr. Pope is made to say in one place that the consumption of cotton in the United States is one and a half millions of pounds, whereas it is 150,000,000 pounds at least.

Southern Agriculturist for February. Charleston: A. E. Miller.

This useful periodical is before us, and we cannot please ourselves better than by giving it a general recommendation.

Farmers' Library. Monthly, by J. S. SKINNER. New York: Greeley & McElrath.

We again call attention to this, a most invaluable publication, and the more particularly that Mr. Skinner is now at the South, and may be soon expected in New Orleans, for the benefit of his work.

Theatrical Apprenticeship and Anecdotal Recollections of Sol Smith, Esq., with Designs by Darley. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart, 1846.

There is much of good broad fun and humor in these sketches of the old "comedian, lawyer, &c.," whose life has been full of rare incident, and who has had sagacity enough to turn it all to account. Sol Smith is a remarkable character, and he has played off his eccentricities on a broad "stage." As Mr. Kerchival says of him, "whether we meet him as a strolling disciple of Thespis, rambling through the South, or 'managing' in St. Louis, or starring it as Mawworm on the St. Charles boards, it is all the same—he is the same old Sol." But we are leaving our legitimate subject of the book to speak of the man, and can only find apology in the fact that the man is so familiar to us here.

We had intended some observations on the drama in New Orleans, but this must be postponed to another occasion. These theatrical "anecdotes" have stirred up some of the old feeling in us, and having been amused ourselves with the book and the illustrations, our charity induces us to recommend them to others, that all may enjoy a brief respite from "dull care" in their perusal.

EDITOR'S NOTE.—We are anxiously expecting Dr. Monette's work on the "Valley of the Mississippi," which will be elaborately noticed by us; also the writings of that great, learned and lamented man, Hugh S. Legare. Mr. Forshey, we are told, has prepared abundant geological material in relation to Louisiana, which we should like on some occasion to look into. We hope soon to have many valuable contributors to the pages of our journal. An article on the Nashville and Atlantic Railroad, a charter of which some one has sent us, would be very acceptable. We thank the Hon. Isaac E. Morse, of this State, for a copy of Congressional documents, of which we shall make good use in our work.

The Southern Quarterly Review reaches us too late for a notice in the present number; and also the able argument of the Hon. B. F. Porter, of Alabama, on the Commor School system.

THE

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

Volume I. APRIL, 1846. No. 4.

Art. 1.—THE COTTON PLANT.*

THE curse of God which doomed the earth to comparative sterility for the sins of man, can only be duly appreciated in the reflection that the earth is the great source of supply to all of his physical wants. He may call upon the animal creation for their tribute—the fish of the sea, the birds of the air, and the beasts of the forests—and he may mould them to his will and his uses, but the decree will still be against him, thou shalt till the ground and earn subsistence only with daily sweat: "cursed is the ground for thy sake, in sorrow thou shalt eat of it all the days of thy life: thorns also and thistles shall it bring forth: in the sweat of thy face thou shalt eat bread."

It is not written that "man shall live by bread alone," we are told. He must be protected from the snows of winter and the sultry summer suns—he must be shielded from the storms of heaven, and his natural powers of locomotion be added to for the purposes of his being. Man here below, after all, wants much; and for all his wants his parent earth bids him toil, and yields to him at last a reluctant revenue. In the first days of her shame mother Eve could sew fig leaves into a garment, but no longer can her progeny be satisfied with fig leaves, nor be clothed like the lilies of the valley, "which neither spin nor weave." "Time began," as an old English poet has it, "when Adam delved and Eve span," and it has been so ever since, and it will be so in all the future, delving and spinning, delving and spinning for every child of Adam. It was "delve" then for bread, and fleece the flock for the spinning reel; but now it is "delve" for everything: "delve" for the bread which makes the body, and "delve" for the covering in which the body is enveloped. We are learning to discharge the lower animals from their vassalage, to forget that they

* 1. Memoir on the Origin, Cultivation and Uses of Cotton: by WHITEMARSH B. SEABROOK, President of the State Agricultural Society of South Carolina: 1843.
2. Responses to the Circular of the Secretary of the Treasury: Treasury Documents, 1846.
3. Ellsworth's Report of the operation of the United States Patent Office: 1845.
4. White's Memoir of Slater, and History of the Rise and Progress of the Cotton Manufacture in England and America.
5. Pitkin's Statistical View of the Commerce of the United States and its connection with Agriculture and Manufactures.
6. Baine's History of the Cotton Manufacture.
7. Pastoral Life and Manufactures of the Ancients: 1846.
8. McCulloch, article Cotton.
9. Southern Quarterly Review, Vol. i. No. 2, article East India Cotton.
10. View of the United States of America: by Tench Coxe: Philadelphia, 1794.

have backs to be fleeced and shorn, now that the harnessed elements struggle in vain against our despot wills, but when shall we discharge the earth from her labors and bid her prolific virtues from seed time to harvest be exerted no more? Man is abandoning the animal in his giant victories over the vegetable kingdom.

The design of the present sketch is to exhibit—

I. The earliest knowledge we have in relation to the growth of the cotton plant:

II. The culture of cotton among the ancients.

III. The introduction of cotton into Europe.

IV. The history of cotton in America.

V. The present extent of the cotton trade.

VI. The future prospects of American cotton.

In subsequent numbers of our journal we shall continue the subject before us in its other interesting and important relations, following a similar order in the discussion of each.

I. THE COTTON PLANT.

II. THE MANUFACTURE OF COTTON.

III. THE CULTURE OF COTTON.

Once for all it is as well to state that we have drawn upon all the authorities collected together at the bottom of the preceding page, for our facts and statistics. The material is full, and we have made, as we are entitled to do, a legitimate use of it, and shall embody in the three articles an amount of information on most important subjects not now within the reach of the great mass of readers. In the article on the CULTURE OF COTTON, we expect to be assisted by some of the leading planters of this staple in the South and West; and for that purpose have issued numerous circular letters. The present number of our Review may be considered as a general invitation also to all such who will communicate their views to us fully.

Of the four great articles of human clothing, cotton, silk, wool, and flax, not one is indigenous to Europe, two only are indigenous to Africa and America, cotton and flax, while all the rest belong to Asia. Cotton is said to possess the advantage over all the materials which the skill of man converts into comfortable and elegant clothing. Its utility is independent of climate. Yielding to many other fabrics in beauty and texture, for health and comfort in the coldest or the hottest regions, the cotton fabric stands unrivaled. The fact is explicable on chemical principles. While linen, a good conductor of heat, condenses the vapor of perspiration into moisture upon the skin, becomes wet, chilled and unable to absorb what it has condensed; cotton being a bad conductor of heat, on the other hand condenses but little moisture, and absorbs a large proportion of what it does condense, leaving the rest to pass off in vapor, and the skin healthy and dry. From these considerations it is said that in cold climates, or in the nocturnal cold of tropical climates, cotton clothing is much better calculated to preserve the warmth of the body than linen. In hot climates also, it is more conducive to health and comfort by admitting of freer perspiration. Mr. Leuwenhoeck subjected fibres of cotton and flax to a powerful microscope, and in this way discovered essential organic differences in them. The fibres of cotton are sharp and angular, rendering it unfit for dressing wounds, while those of flax are

round and smooth. The corkscrew twist of the cotton fibre is said by Mr. Bauer to be always retained, undergoing no change in spinning, weaving, bleaching, printing and dyeing, nor in all the subsequent domestic operations of washing, etc., till the stuff is worn to rags; and then even the violent process of reducing these rags to pulp for the purpose of making paper, effects no change in the structure of these fibres. In thickness they are said to vary from 1-800 to 1-3600 part of an inch.

Cotton wool is the down of a vegetable which appears in botanical works under the genus *gossypum*. There are several varieties of the genus. The wool adheres to the seed of the plant, and is incased until maturity in a pod of triangular shape, with three cells. This pod increases to the size of a filbert, becomes brown, bursts and discloses a triple lock of wool. Acccording to Linnæus there are five species of the plant.

1. *Gossypum herbaceum*, or herbaceous.
2. *Gossypum arboreum*, or arborescent.
3. *Gossypum hirsutum*, or hairy.
4. *Gossypum religiosum*, or religious.
5. *Gossypum Barbadenses*, or Barbadoes.

Other writers have varied as to the number of species. The highest number given is ten; the *Indicum*, *Micranthum*, *Vitifolium*, *Latifolium* and *Peruvianum* being added to the list. But the great and cardinal distinctions of the plant are found in three classes, which we shall hereafter consider.

1. The herbaceous cotton.
2. The shrub cotton.
3. The tree cotton.

We take up our subject now in the order in which it is laid before us:

1. *The earliest history and mention of the Cotton Plant.* The sacred records furnish us nothing satisfactory on the subject. The only word which occurs in them which would lead us to infer that the Jews knew anything of this staple is the word *Carpas*, translated *green* in the phrase "green and blue hangings"—*Esther*, i. 6—Carpas being an Oriental word for cotton. Herodotus, 400 years before Christ, observed in relation to India, that the wild trees in that country bear fleeces as their fruit, surpassing those of sheep in beauty and excellence, and the Indians use cloth made from these trees. The Greeks knew little or nothing of cotton till the expeditions of Alexander the Great into India. Theophrastus, who lived a little after this time, learned that the trees from which the Indians made cloths have a leaf like that of the black mulberry, and that these trees were set out in rows like vines. His description of the plant is admirably exact: "The capsule containing the wool, is, when closed, about the size of a quince, when ripe it expands so as to admit the wool." Alexander's generals were men of observation, and we have, from two of them at least, clear and indisputable evidence of cotton. Aristobulus instanced the capsule containing seed, and the wool which might be combed out; and Nearchus went into particulars: "There are in India trees bearing as it were flocks or bunches of wool, out of which the natives make garments, wearing a shirt which reaches to

the middle of the leg, a sheet folded about the shoulders, and a turban folded round the head."

Carpasus or Carbasus were terms without doubt used by the Latin writers to describe the cotton product of the East. Thus Curtius, speaking of Eastern dress, has the passages *carbasa velant*, "covered with carbasus," *purpurea carbasa*, "with purple carbasus;" and Lucan

"Fix
With colored gems the flowing Carbasus."

As the Greeks and Romans, says our authority, became acquainted with cotton much earlier than with silk, we find that Carpas, the proper Oriental name for cotton, was also in use among them at a comparatively early period.

The use of cotton among the Greeks and Romans must necessarily have been of the most limited extent, and only as an article of exquisite luxury. It is not clear that the early Greeks had any knowledge of the fabric at all. The word *carbasina*, in a Greek play, does not warrant the inference which has been drawn "that 200 years before Christ the Greeks made use of cotton cloths of some kind which were brought from India." The testimony is better for the Romans, but then it goes back at farthest but seventy years before the Christian era.

The luxurious Verres in Sicily protected his tents from the sun's rays by coverings of the *carbasus*. This is the earliest mention of the Roman use of cotton. The following passage has been translated from Livy—"Lentulus Spinther (B. C. 63) is said to have first introduced cotton awnings in the theatre at the Apollinarian Games. By and by Cæsar the Dictator covered with awnings the whole Roman forum, and the sacred way from his own house even to the ascent of the Capitoline hill, which is said to have appeared more wonderful than the gladiatorial exhibition itself." The word *carbasus* appears in the following translation from Lucretius:

"As flaps the cotton spread above our heads
In the vast theatres from mast to beam."

The story of the Vestal Virgin, from another writer of the same period, exhibits her as preserving the last sparks of sacred fire on the altar, by casting upon it her muslin head-dress, *carbasus alba*.

The Roman writers did not always use the word we translate cotton in the same sense, and it requires an understanding of the context and of collateral facts to fix the meaning of the word in any particular instance. Thus, where carbasus in numerous places is mentioned as the material for the sails of shipping, linen is to be understood. In one instance a writer applying the term to an Indian fleet undoubtedly meant cotton, for of this from the earliest times sail cloth was manufactured at the East. Virgil uses the word in both senses. Pliny, one of the earliest and greatest naturalists of antiquity, whose volumes are full of light in relation to the vegetable kingdom, appears after all to have had but confused knowledge of the cotton plant. He was the first to affix the botanical name of *gossypion*, and supposed it an Egyptian as well as an Indian pro-

duct. Mr. Seabrook quotes the passage, which will save us the trouble of a reference: "In Upper Egypt, toward Arabia, there grows a shrub called gossypum, by others xylon, from which the stuffs are made that we call xylina. It is small and bears a fruit resembling the filbert, within which is a downy wool, which is spun into thread. There is nothing to be preferred to these stuffs for whiteness or softness, and beautiful garments are made of them for the priests of Egypt." Julius Pollux a century later remarks, "among the Indians, and now also among the Egyptians, a sort of wool is obtained from a tree;" Virgil had said long before—

"Soft wool from downy groves the Æthiop weaves."

The question then is, was cotton, or the cotton manufacture, known to the Egyptians—that nation of extreme antiquity? and, if known, to what extent as an article of clothing?

There never was any doubt as to the fact of the Egyptians being acquainted at a very early period with the manufacture of various descriptions of cloths. In wool and flax their works were carried to a high degree of perfection. A word in Herodotus descriptive of the material used for wrappers in preparing and embalming mummies, has given occasion to protracted discussions among the learned. It is not conceived clear what was exactly intended by *byssus*, the word in question. Learned authorities understand cotton, and equally learned, flax. The doubt has even been raised whether a product of the animal, vegetable, or mineral kingdoms, is intended. The contest on this point was waged for many years, and the most elaborate disquisitions given to the world. In the list of disputants are conspicuous the names of Forster, Blumenbach, Porson, Young, Hamilton, Harris, Wehrs, Voss, Heeren, Gesenius, and Rosenmuller. The world has grown wiser in some respects by the dispute, but would not in all probability have found out, had it been continued to this day, whether the Egyptians of that earlier period of the mummies were acquainted with the uses of cotton. What the learning of philology and the tests of chemistry could not unravel, has been put at rest by that extraordinary achievement of modern science, the microscope.

Mr. Thompson, to whom the world is indebted for the solution of the *vexata questio*, in a paper read before the Royal Society of England, observes that his attention was first attracted to the subject by having presented to him several specimens of mummy cloth. He remarked to Mr. Belzoni that these fabrics scarcely deserved the appellation of "fine linen," which had from all antiquity been bestowed upon the linen of Egypt; to which it was replied by that traveler, that during his researches in Egypt, he had met with mummy cloths of every degree of fineness from the coarsest sacking to the finest and most transparent muslin. The subject appearing to be sufficiently interesting, Mr. Thompson was induced to examine minutely a variety of specimens of the cloth. The experiments of Leuwenhoeck induced him to apply the microscope as a test of these fabrics; and for this purpose they were sent to Mr. Bauer, who had a powerful instrument at hand. Mr. Bauer's letter in reply was accompanied by a drawing which exhibited the fibres of both raw and un-

raveled cotton as flattened cylinders, twisted like a corkscrew, while those of linen and mummy cloths were straight and cylindrical.

We give the concluding passages of Mr. Thompson's paper before the society, in his own language: "Repeated observations having established beyond all doubt the power of the microscope accurately to distinguish between the fibres of cotton and linen, I obtained through the kindness of various individuals connected with the British Museum, the Royal College of Surgeons, the Hunterian Museum of Glasgow, as well as other public institutions both at home and abroad, a great variety of cloths of human mummies and of animals and birds, which being subjected to the microscope of Mr. Bauer, proved without exception to be linen. Nor has he among the numerous specimens we have both collected during many years, been able to detect a single fibre of cotton; a fact since recently confirmed by others, and proving incontestably that the mummy cloth of Egypt was linen. Their form and character the fibres retain ever after, and in that respect undergo no change through the operation of spinning, weaving, bleaching, printing and dyeing, nor in all the subsequent operations of washing, till the stuff is worn to rags, and then even the violent process of reducing those rags to pulp for the purpose of making paper, effects no change in the structure of these fibres." "With Ploessel's microscope," says Mr. Bauer, "I can ascertain whether cotton rags have been mixed with linen in any manufactured paper whatever."

The origin of the word cotton is explained as follows, by Mr. Baines. The pod of the plant had been likened by Pliny to a quince, the Latin name of which is *cotoneum malum*. By a natural and common figure of language, the pod itself, and the fruit of the pod, came to be known by the same designation, and finally, *cotoneum* simply, or cotton. The Latins, however, did not themselves apply the word *cotoneum* to this plant. The Arabians called it koton; the Italians of the middle ages, cotone; the Spaniards, algodon.

II. *The culture of cotton* commenced first in the East, and has been handed down for thousands of years. The Chinese have produced large quantities, but not sufficient for the consumption of the country. Importations are made from Surat and Bombay and various other parts of India, into China.

In 1823–4.....115,000 maunds.	In 1827–8.....197,000 maunds.
In 1824–5.....199,000 maunds.	In 1828–9.....125,000 maunds.
In 1825–6.....177,000 maunds.	In 1829–30.....126,000 maunds.
In 1826–7.....314,000 maunds.	

Being an average of 187,000 maunds of 80 pounds each, or 15,000,000 pounds annually. From Bombay the annual import was at the last period 40,000,000 lbs. The most remarkable fact is, that although cotton was cultivated in gardens from remote antiquity in China, yet this ingenious people never turned it into any account until the end of the thirteenth century, at which time its manufacture among them began.

The following passages from the narratives of those who have visited India, are replete with interesting information on the subject before us. Marco Polo found cotton in Guzerat, in large quantities, taken from a tree about six yards high, and bearing for twenty years.

The cotton from a tree of this age is adapted only to quilting, but that taken from trees of twelve years is suitable for muslins and other manufactures of extraordinary fineness. Sir John Mandeville, in the fifteenth century, later by fifty years than Polo, says that in many places the seed of the cotton in India which we call tree wool, is sown every year, and there springs up from it copses of low shrubs, on which the wool grows.

A luxuriant field, says another, exhibiting at the same time the expanding blossom, the bursting capsule and the snowy flakes of ripe cotton, is one of the most beautiful objects in the agriculture of Hindostan. Malte Brun is equally instructive on the point: "The cotton tree grows on all the Indian mountains, but its produce is coarse in quality; the herbaceous cotton prospers chiefly in Bengal and on the Coromandel coast, and there the best cotton goods are manufactured. Next to these two provinces, Maduré, Marawar, Pescaria and the coast of Malabar produce the finest cotton. The plant is cultivated in every part of India; the finest grows in the light, rocky soil of Guzerat, Bengal, Oude and Agra. The cultivation of this plant is very lucrative, an acre producing about nine quintals of cotton annually."*

In central Africa cotton has also been a staple growth time out of memory. It is mentioned by travelers as abundant on the banks of the Senegal, the Gambia and the Niger, at Timbuctoo, Sierre Leone, the Cape de Verde islands, on the coast of Guinea and in Abyssinia. In hot climates also, says an authority, the cotton plant grows so abundantly, that this is the cheapest material of which cloth can be made. With such recommendations it cannot fail to continue the staple and universal manufacture of Africa.

Cotton is also of indigenous American growth. On the first landing of the Spaniards in Mexico, they found it in considerable perfection. The Mexicans are said to have been solely dependent upon this product, the wool of rabbits and hares, feathers and a fibrous plant called maguei, for their clothing materials. They had neither wool, hemp nor silk, and their flax was not used for these purposes. Out of cotton they fabricated webs of exceeding tenuity, and their cloths were woven into beautiful figures. Mantles, bed curtains and carpets they finished elegantly with mingled cotton and feathers. Cortez sent to Charles V. of Spain, "cotton mantles, some all white, others mixed with white and black, or red, green, yellow, and blue, waistcoats, handkerchiefs, counterpanes, tapestries, and carpets of cotton." A peculiar cotton paper was made in Mexico, small cloths of the same material constituted a part of their currency, and their warriors are said to have had cotton cuirasses. The modern Mexicans have lost the perfection of their ancient art of manufacture. The American plant was not confined to Mexico alone; Columbus found it wild in Hispaniola and on the continent of South America, where it had already grown into an article of use for clothing and other purposes. The Brazilians made their beds of it. Columbus, Magellan, Drake, Cavendish, Dampier, Van Noort, all agree that cotton was one of the articles of dress among the American savages, on the discovery of the country. At St. Salvador, the women are described as dressed in cotton coats. Even as

* Pastoral Life and Manufactures of the Ancients, p. 331.

far north, says Mr. Seabrook, as the Mes-chacebe, or Mississippi, the earliest explorers of that river and its tributary streams saw cotton growing wild in the pod, and in great plenty. These facts, and they might almost be indefinitely multiplied, are introduced to rebut the opinion founded on the negative testimony of Captain Cook, that the gossypum is not a native of the western hemisphere. That celebrated voyager found no cotton between New Zealand 36° south, and the Sandwich Islands 20° north. In addition to flax and the bark of the mulberry tree, in which Captain Cook says that the inhabitants of those regions were habited, the nations all over the continent nearly, used as articles of dress, besides cotton, feathers, the wool of rabbits, the maguei, and silk grass. In 1726, cotton was a staple product of Hispaniola. In 1753, Jamaica exported 2,000 bags. On an average of eight years from 1740 to 1748, the export of cotton from Barbadoes was 600 bags annually. In 1787, St. Domingo, St. Christopher, Grenada, Dominica, Antigua, Montserrat and Nevis, and the Virgin Islands, exported the same commodity. In 1803 there were grown five varieties of cotton in Jamaica, the common, the brown-bearded, the Nankin, the French and the Brazilian. From these facts Mr. Baines draws the conclusion that the manufacture of cotton must therefore be supposed to be coeval with the original settlement of America; but learned men are much divided as to the date of this event, some carrying it nearly as high as the deluge, and others contending for a much later period. The American manufacture may at all events claim a high degree of antiquity.

III. We are now to speak of the *introduction of cotton into Europe;* an event which has had such amazing results, and which has exerted, it is difficult to say how large an influence, upon society and upon governments. The wealth and power of Great Britain, acknowledged and felt by all the world, have a nearer connection with the cotton plant and cotton manufacture than with any other branch of industry and enterprise whatever. McCulloch is thrown into ecstasies with the reflection, and is at a loss to find language to express himself. Such, says he, however, has been the influence of the stupendous discoveries and inventions of Hargraves, Arkwright, Crompton, Cartwright, and others, that we have overcome all of these difficulties—that neither the cheapness of labor in Hindostan, nor the excellence to which the natives had attained, has enabled them to withstand the competition of those who buy their cotton, and who, after carrying it five thousand miles to be manufactured, carry back the goods to them. This is the greatest triumph of mechanical genius, and what, perhaps, is the most extraordinary, our superiority is not the late result of a long series of successive discoveries and inventions; on the contrary it has been accomplished in a very few years. Little more than half a century has elapsed since the British cotton manufacture was in its infancy, and it now forms the principle business carried on in the country, affording an advantageous field for the accumulation and employment of millions upon millions of capital, and of thousands upon thousands of workmen. The skill and genius by which these astonishing results have been achieved, have been one of the main sources of our power; they have contributed in no common degree to raise the British nation to the high and conspicu-

ous place she now occupies. Nor is it too much to say that it was the wealth and energy derived from the cotton manufacture that bore us triumphantly through the late dreadful contest; and at the same time that it gives us strength to sustain burdens that would have crushed our fathers, and could not be supported by any other people. But we are intruding upon another division of our subject.

In European history no mention is made of cotton as an article of trade until the fourteenth century. Though silk, woollen, and flax had long been articles of wealth and commerce, cotton had no existence. In Spain, to be sure, small quantities of it were grown and manufactured as early as the tenth century, having been introduced there by the Moors, among other articles of Eastern luxury. The cultivation of the plant at this period would also appear to have been an object of attention in Sicily. In the fourteenth century, a Spanish writer thus glowingly describes his country: "Here you find also the cocus, with which the cotton stuffs are dyed, for there is a great abundance of cotton as well for commerce as for use in manufactures; and the cotton garments made here are said to be far superior to those of Assyria in softness, delicacy and beauty." The Italians had little intercourse with Spain, and did not learn from her the use of cotton. It was not introduced into Venice until the beginning of the fourteenth century. The Turks introduced the use of cotton about the same period in their conquered countries of Romania and Macedonia. The district of Seres in Macedonia, according to Malte Brun, is more fruitful in cotton than any other. The value of the article amounted in one year in Macedonia alone to 7,000,000 piastres.

England was the last to take up this important branch of industry. The precise period of its introduction has not been determined. The first authentic mention of the staple, we are told by McCulloch, is made by Lewis Roberts, in his Treasure of Traffic, published in 1641, where it is stated, "the town of Manchester, in Lancashire, must be also herein remembered, who buy the yarne of the Irish in great quantity, and weaving it, returne the same again into Ireland to sell. Neither doth their industry rest here, for they buy cotton wool in London that comes first from Cyprus and Smyrna, and at home worke the same and perfect it into fustians, vermillions, domestics, and other such stuffs, and then returne it to London, where the same is vended and sold." In the early part of the eighteenth century, cotton from the East and West Indies had become an article of import into Great Britain, to some extent. But of this hereafter.

There is great difficulty in determining the exact period when cotton began to be cultivated in the different cotton sections of the United States. According to Seabrook, the culture of this staple was endeavored to be forced upon the planters of Virginia one hundred and thirty years before the Revolution. Out of this contest of the mother country to prescribe the employment of the colony, and the resistance of the Virginia planters to the encroachments, arose the navigation acts, as they are called, which prohibited the receipt or export of any European commodities other than those carried to them by Englishmen or English built ships. The act of Charles II. in a similar spirit was calculated to depress the value of tobacco, and the Virginians were driven to other crops, cotton among the rest.

In the historical collections of South Carolina, published by Mr. Carroll, there is an old paper drawn up in the year 1666, entitled "A Brief Description of the Province of Carolina, on the Coast of Florida." This was written and published in England previous to the settlement of Carolina. The object of the paper was to encourage emigrants to go over, and among other inducements it is said that the lands "grow indigo, tobacco very good, and cotton wool." In the same collections Dr. Hewett of the date —— describes the manner of cultivating the cotton plant, and speaks of it as yet not of sufficient importance to attract the attention of the colonists. Wilson, who wrote an account of Carolina in 1682, mentions cotton of the Cyprus and Malta sort, as grown in the State from imported seed. Peter Purry, a Swiss, and the founder of Purrysburgh in the same colony, memorialized the government of George I. in relation to a certain country extending 33 degrees on either side of the equator capable of the production of cotton. This individual, in a paper written at Charleston, 1731, observes, that "cotton and flax thrive admirably." The private journal of Miss Lucus, daughter of the Governor of Antigua, and afterward the noble mother of those noble sons, General Thomas and Charles Coatsworth Pinkney of South Carolina, *par nobile fratrum*, contains this note for July 1, 1739, "wrote to my father to-day, on the pains I had taken to bring the indigo, ginger, cotton, &c., to perfection, and that I had greater hopes from the indigo than any other."

It is a well-authenticated fact, says Mr. Seabrook, that in 1736, as far north as the thirty-ninth degree, cotton on the garden scale was raised in the vicinity of Easton in the county of Talbot, on the eastern shore of the Chesapeake Bay. About forty years afterward it was cultivated in St. Mary's county, Maryland, and in the northern county of Cape May in New Jersey, also in the county of Sussex in Delaware. On the breaking out of the American war, General Delagall of South Carolina is said to have cultivated thirty acres of the green seed cotton near Savannah. The congress of South Carolina, in 1775, recommended the inhabitants to raise cotton. Mr. Jefferson remarking on Virginia, 1781, alludes to the domestic economy of making cotton goods in families for their own use. The seed from which the cotton of these sections was grown came both from Manilla and Cyprus, according to some authorities, and from Barbadoes according to others. We may suppose both varieties to be the parent stock of American cotton.

In Louisiana, the subject of cotton would appear to have attracted notice at a very early period of the history of that province. We are informed by the letters from Paris of Mr. Forstall to Governor Roman, now in course of publication in our Journal, that, among the archives of the department De la Marine et des Colonies, there is "a most curious report on cotton in 1760, of the great advantages Louisiana might derive from its culture—the difficulty of separating the seed from the wool—its introduction from St. Domingo—a report to M. de Maurepas on that matter, suggesting the importation, from the East Indies, of machinery to separate the seed, &c." These valuable and ancient documents the Legislature of the State are

taking steps to have introduced into this country—their proper repository.

Tench Coxe, Esq.,* of Philadelphia, called the father of the growth of American cotton, prepared a statement of the arts and manufactures of the United States in 1786. He informs us that the people of the country, south of Annapolis in Maryland, were not impressed with any belief of their capacity to produce cotton wool in any considerable quantity. From the recollections of cotton as a garden plant in his childhood, Mr. Coxe, in 1785, entertained "the pleasing convictions that the United States, in its extensive regions south of Anne Arundell and Talbot, would certainly become a great cotton producing country." Mr. Madison held the same opinion in 1786. These convictions, together with the fact of a supply of domestic cottons during the Revolution, at Philadelphia, for manufacture, induced a mission to England on the part of Mr. Coxe, to obtain machinery, etc., for extensive establishments.

The treaty entered into between Great Britain and the United States, in 1792, stipulated against the importation of American cotton, in order to increase the English carrying trade of the West India cotton. We thus infer how great value Mr. Jay attributed to our cotton plant. The Senate refused a ratification of this provision.

Among the exports of Charles Town, S. C., in 1748, were seven bags of cotton wool, valued at £3 11s. 5d. a bag. Another small export is stated for 1754. In 1770, ten bales were shipped to Liverpool from the American colonies. The laughable incident of eight

* The following ancient account of this valuable citizen we extract from Mr. White's memoir of Slater. The first ancestor of the Coxe family, connected with America, was Dr. Daniel Coxe, who was physician to the queen of Charles II., of England, and also to Queen Anne. He was the principal proprietor of the soil of West Jersey, and sole proprietor of the government, he having held the office of governor to him and his forever. At the request of Queen Anne he surrendered the government to the crown, retaining the other proprietary rights. A member of the Coxe family was always appointed by the crown, while there was a resident member in the province, a member of the Royal Council of New Jersey until the Revolution.

Dr. Coxe was also sole proprietor of the extensive province of Carolina, an account of which is extant in an octavo volume, written by his son, Colonel Daniel Coxe, called "The History of Carolina," a copy of which will be found in the library of Congress, the Philadelphia library, and the Athæneum of Philadelphia.

Colonel Coxe intermarried with Sarah, the only child of John Eckley, a judge of the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania, and left issue, among others, William Coxe, who married Mary, the daughter of Tench Francis, attorney-general of the province of Pennsylvania, Tench Coxe was the son of William and Mary Coxe, and was born in Philadelphia, 22nd May, 1755, and died the 17th July, 1824.

The charter of Carolina was, in the extent of territory and power, the most extensive ever granted by a crown to a subject; the family were therefore obliged to release it to the crown, in consideration of a mandamus of the king, conferring 100,000 acres of land in New York. Dr. Coxe was also a large proprietor in Pennsylvania, and nearly all the American provinces. To his eldest son, Colonel Daniel Coxe, he gave all his American possessions, and this gentleman was the first of the family who resided in America. He arrived in this country in 1709.

We have thus been particular in our notice of the family of Mr. Coxe, as we shall afterward have occasion to notice this large participator in the earlier operations of our manufacturing system.

bags of American cotton being seized in England on the ground that so much cotton could not possibly be the produce of the United States, occurred in 1784, only sixty-two years ago! The export of American cotton to Europe was, in

1785	14 bags.	1788	389 bags.
1786	6 "	1789	842 "
1787	109 "	1790	81 "

Of the fourteen bags sent to Europe in 1785, ten were shipped by John Teasdale, of Charleston, S. C., who, it is said, bought, the year before, the first bag of cotton sold in South Carolina. From the period of 1790, from the growth of home manufactures during the war, the improvement in machinery, and the great invention of Eli Whitney, of which we shall afterward speak, to the present day, the growth of cotton has been extending with broader and broader arms, until it embraces at last an immense region of territory, clothes and supports half the world, and affords to be heaped up in warehouses thousands and thousands of bags for future consumption. If, says a writer, the "wool sack" was a significant seal for the Chancelor of the British peers, to remind him of what was the great staple of the empire, the "cotton bag," the staple of the new world, may well be held in equal remembrance by the legislators of the Union. Every member ought to wear it as the girdle of his loins, emblematical of the bulwarks of the agricultural, manufacturing, and commercial interests of the United Republics. Every officer of the government should be clad in the productions of this superabundant article, and every citizen should be enrobed with it in life, and shrouded with it in death. It was protected in its infancy by the administration of Washington; and it has proved in its youth the defence of the beauty and booty of every section of the country.

The French in Louisiana experimented, during the interval between 1786 and 1795, in a species of White Siam cotton, their nankeen cottons being of the Malta kind. Carolina introduced the Bourbon, and Georgia the Pernambuco—the last being received from Havana. The culture of these cottons, we are told, was abandoned on account of their inferiority. The Louisiana cotton of the present day, it is conjectured by Mr. Seabrook, was derived from a species of Sea Island grown at the period of the Revolution, but degenerated in the progress of tillage by intermixing with other kinds. To a cross with Sea Island cottons, large quantities of which were shipped to Louisiana immediately subsequent to its cession to the United States, is perhaps, in part, to be attributed the decided superiority of the New Orleans cotton wool of the present day over all others in North America, of the green seed description.

The cotton cultivated in the United States is of the three great varieties of *herbaceous*, or herb cotton; *hirsutum*, hairy or shrub cotton; *arborescent*, or tree cotton; the two former comprise the green seed, short staple or upland; the latter the black seed, long staple or Sea Island variety. The herbaceum is stated to be of eastern origin clearly, and the hirsutum to be either from the East or West Indies. It will be a proper place to introduce some remarks upon each of the different classes enumerated.

1. The *Herbaceous* Cotton.—This plant grows to the height of

eighteen to twenty-four inches, with leaves of dark green, blue veined, and five lobed. The flower is a pale yellow, one pistil, five petals or leaves, purple spotted at the bottom. On the falling of the flower a pod of triangular shape and triple cell is developed. The pod, in course of ripening bursts, discloses a snow-white or yellowish ball of down, in three locks, inclosing and tightly adhering to the seeds, which resemble those of the grape, though of several times the size. The seed is planted in spring, and the cotton gathered at fall. The rows in the fields are five to six feet apart, the distance of the holes, in which several seeds are deposited, is about eighteen inches. Much care in weeding, thinning, and pruning, is required during the process of culture. This is the course pursued in the United States, which has the advantage over that pursued in India, by producing a cotton vastly more valuable. A field of cotton at the gathering, says Mr. Baines, when the globes of snowy wool are seen among the glossy dark leaves, is singularly beautiful; and in the hottest countries, where the yellow blossom or flower, and the ripened fruit, are seen at the same time, the beauty of the plantation is of course still more remarkable. The herbaceous cotton is reputed the most useful, and said to be cultivated in nearly every country congenial to the gossypum, existing even at Aleppo, in Upper Egypt, Arabia, and Senegal.

2. The *Hirsutum*, or shrub cotton.—It is said to grow wherever the herbaceous is found, and to vary according to climate, being biennial or triennial in the West Indies, lasting from six to ten years in India and Egypt, perennial in the hottest climates, and in the mildest cotton regions an annual. The shrub cotton is likened to a currant bush, and is of several varieties, The hirsutum, a low shrub already mentioned, the *Indicum*, attaining ten or twelve feet; the *Vitifolium*, of the south of France and South America; the *Religiosum*, of Surinam and India; the *Latifolium* of the West Indies; the *Barbadense*, of Barbadoes; and the *Peruvian*. The pod of the shrub cotton differs from that of the herb in being egg shaped. The Guiana and Brazil cotton is of this kind, and is said to yield, in the hottest countries, two crops a year.

3. The *Arborescent*, or tree cotton.—This remarkable plant is of Indian, Chinese, Egyptian and American growth. The height of the tree varies from fifteen to twenty feet. Marco Polo describes the tree at Guzerat six yards high, and bearing fruit for twenty years. There is a tree described in South America, Indian Isles, West Indies, and on the Guinea coast, of a hundred feet high, bearing a silky cotton, only useful for making quilting and beds. The justly celebrated *American Sea Island cotton* is derived from the Arboreum. Its fibre is long, strong, silky, and of a yellowish tinge. The seed is black, and of Persian origin, though originally introduced into this country from the Bahama Islands, where it had been introduced by the Board of Trade from Anguilla, an island of the Carribean sea. This cotton was raised first in Georgia in 1786, and the first bag exported by Alexander Bissel of St. Simon's Island, two years after. The section of country capable of producing this staple is very limited, being confined to the low sandy islands along the coasts of South

Carolina and Georgia, from Charleston to Savannah. The quantity grown in 1805 and in 1832 was precisely the same.

We condense from Mr. Seabrook's valuable notes on the Sea Island cotton, the most interesting particulars. The region of this cotton in South Carolina is bounded on the north and north-west by a line about twenty miles south of the line that separates Barnwell and Orangeburgh from the neighboring parishes, on the north-east and east by the Santee river, on the west and south-west by the Savannah river, and on the south and south-east by the ocean. The Eutaw Springs, in St. John's, Berkley, is the extreme northern point to which it extends. Williamsburg was for many years embraced in its limit, but that district no longer furnishes a supply of the raw material. In 1812 it was experimented on in Sumpter District, but it was found an unprofitable crop there. Mrs. Kinsey Burden, in 1788, was the first to attempt a crop of Sea Island cotton in South Carolina, her plantation having produced it the preceding nine years in small quantities. This was in St. Paul's Parish, and the attempt failed in consequence of the pod not coming to maturity. William Elliott made the first successful crop in the State in 1790, on an island called Hilton Head, out of seed costing 14*s.* a bushel. This crop sold at 10½*d.* per pound. In 1792, a field on the Oakatee yielded 600 pounds, which sold at Savannah for 2*s.* per pound. During 1793 many other planters attempted the culture with various success, and indigo and the Sea Island cotton began to struggle for the mastery.

The enormous prices realized in past times by the planters of Sea Island cotton, have resulted in the accumulation of some of the largest fortunes in South Carolina. In 1799, one gentleman on St. John's, Berkley, realized £78 sterling, or about $350 to the hand, in a single year: another gentleman received 3*s.* per pound for a crop of three hundred acres, and 216 pound to the acre. William Seabrook, of Edisto, purchased the plantation of Mr. Brisbane, and paid out of the proceeds of two years' crops the whole amount of the purchase money. The price of the cotton in the State ranged at first from 9*d.* to 1*s.*, but reached 2*s.* and upward about the year 1806. The staple was found to be of such unusual length, that the English spinners actually thought proper to cut it shorter, thus destroying what is in fact its chief virtue.

The finest and best specimens of Sea Island have been produced by the most finished practical skill on the part of some of the planters, and by an acquaintance with the principles of chemistry and botany. Kinsey Burden, senr., of St. John's, Colleton, S. C., occupies the first place in this list. He succeeded in producing from selected seed a parcel of fine cotton, in 1805, worth 25 cents a pound more than that of any of his neighbors. Continuing his laudable labors, his crop of 1826, of 60 bags, brought in market 110 cents the pound, and his crop of the following year 125 cents. Mr. Burden's wonderful success excited quite a sensation, but his secret was kept closely for many years. William Elliott suggested that it might lie in the character of the seed used; and upon the hint several set to work, Hugh Wilson among the most successful of these, realized the ensuing year 125 cents per pound for his product. Two bags of extra

fine cotton raised in 1828, brought $2 per pound, the highest price, says Mr. Seabrook, obtained in this or any other country from which cotton wool is exported. Mr. Burden's secret beginning to leak out, he proposed to divulge it to the Legislature for the sum of $200,000, but afterward changed his mind. William Seabrook, of Edisto, had designed offering $50,000 for initiation into the method, but declined afterward, alleging that "conjecture had yielded to certainty, that to the seed solely was traceable the fine cotton which Mr. Burden continued to grow." From that period down to the present day, the Sea Island planters have been constantly improving the quality of their staple at the expense of the quantity, and prices have fallen to but a fractional part of what they were. The result has been, that although particular instances of success are to be found, the planters as a body have been greatly injured by the production of the finest qualities of cotton.

It would be appropriate in this place to introduce a notice of the remarkable progress and improvement in the machinery for separating cotton wool from its fast adhering seed. The matter was at one time thought a physical impossibility, but mechanical ingenuity in the person of Whitney and others, has been attended with the most triumphant success. We reserve, however, this interesting branch of our subject to be treated of in another article, under the head of *Cotton Manufactures;* it being perhaps better, for the sake of order, to take up in that place the crude cotton as it is spread over the fields, tracing out from thence every interesting change, until it appears at last in the most exquisite specimens of prints or the most delicate varieties of laces and muslins.

V. *The Cotton Trade.*—Notwithstanding our statement, which is sustained by high authority, that cotton was shipped from this country to Great Britain in small quantities in the years 1784–5–6, etc., Mr. McCulloch affirms broadly, that previously to 1790 North America did not supply a single pound of cotton for export, although some inconsiderable quantity had been raised even before the revolutionary war. There is a discrepancy and difficulty here which Mr. Seabrook has, we think, vainly endeavored to remove. The authorities—Drayton's "Memoirs," Smither's "Liverpool," and a work "On American Husbandry," published in 1775—are of too high a nature to be removed by any merely negative testimony. It is due to McCulloch, however, to say that the statement he has made is not unsupported from other sources. The subject, cotton, does not appear in the Charleston Prices Current of 1792; and in 1787 an English factor, Mr. Seabrook tells us without giving the authority, replied to a shipment of one or two small packages of cotton from Charleston—"It is not worth producing, as it cannot be separated from the seed." We shall not balance between the authorities, but present simply the most satisfactory explication which could present itself to Mr. Seabrook's mind under all the circumstances of the case. He says the solution is probably this: the cotton was either prepared by hand-roller gins, which were undoubtedly in use even before the war, and sold in small quantities to the merchants, who packed it for exportation; or it was sent in the seed to Philadelphia and New York, there to undergo the cleaning process. The latter supposition is

based on the large amount of cotton shipped from those ports in the years alluded to, and the fact, as will be seen hereafter, that machines to disconnect the seed from the wool were employed in Philadelphia in 1784. Farther, the condemnation of the bags subsequently exported by Wadsworth & Turpin, shows that the previous consignments must have been of clean cotton, and not in the seed, as might be conjectured.

In considering the cotton trade in its origin and progress from the earliest periods to the present day, we shall commence with the year 1790, since before that period and in the best case, the trade in this staple must have been merely nominal. Mr. McCulloch indeed tells us, that from 1781 to 1789, a period of nine years, the whole import of cotton wool into Great Britain was only 150,000,000 of pounds, an average of about 15,000,000 of pounds per annum, or 35 to 40,000 bags of the present capacity. For one of these years, 1786, he gives the proportion of each country from which there was any import.

From British West Indies	5,880,000	pounds.
" French and Spanish colonies	5,500,000	"
" Dutch colonies	1,600,000	"
" Portuguese colonies	2,000,000	"
" Smyrna and Turkey	5,000,000	"
Total	19,900,000	

The Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Woodbury, communicated to Congress in 1836, a paper on the cultivation, manufacture, and trade of cotton, to which we refer as authority for many of the statements we are about to make.

1.—GROWTH AND EXPORTS OF COTTON.

	IN THE WORLD.	UNITED STATES.		
Year.	Growth. pounds.	Growth. pounds.	Exports. pounds.	Export Value. dollars.
1790	.....	1,500,000	250,000	.....
1791	490,000,000	2,000,000	200,000	.....
1792	.....	3,000,000	143,000	.....
1793	.....	5,000,000	500,000	.....
1794	.....	8,000,000	1,667,000	500,000
1795	.....	8,000,000	6,000,000	2,000,000
1796	.....	10,000,000	6,000,000	2,000,000
1797	.....	11,000,000	3,500,000	1,000,000
1798	.....	15,000,000	9,000,000	3,000,000
1799	.....	20,000,000	9,000,000	4,000,000
1800	.....	35,000,000	17,000,000	5,000,000
1801	520,000,000	48,000,000	20,000,000	9,000,000
1802	.....	55,000,000	27,000,000	5,000,000
1803	.....	60,000,000	41,000,000	8,000,000
1804	.....	65,000,000	38,000,000	8,000,000
1805	.....	70,000,000	40,000,000	9,000,000
1806	.....	80,000,000	37,000,000	8,000,000
1807	.....	80,000,000	66,000,000	14,000,000
1808	.....	75,000,000	12,000,000	2,000,000
1809	.....	82,000,000	53,000,000	8,000,000
1810	.....	85,000,000	93,000,000	15,000,000
1811	555,000,000	80,000,000	62,000,000	9,000,000
1812	.....	75,000,000	29,000,000	3,000,000
1813	.....	75,000,000	19,000,000	2,000,000
1814	.....	70,000,000	17,000,000	2,000,000

GROWTH AND EXPORTS OF COTTON—*Continued.*

Year.	IN THE WORLD. Growth. pounds.	UNITED STATES. Growth. pounds.	Exports. pounds.	Export Value. dollars.
1815	.....	100,000,000	83,000,000	17,000,000
1816	.....	124,000,000	81,000,000	24,000,000
1817	.....	130,000,000	95,000,000	22,000,000
1818	.....	125,000,000	92,000,000	31,000,000
1819	.....	167,000,000	88,000,000	21,000,000
1820	.....	160,000,000	127,000,000	22,000,000
1821	630,000,000	180,000,000	124,000,000	20,000,000
1822	.....	210,000,000	144,000,000	24,000,000
1823	.....	185,000,000	173,000,000	23,000,000
1824	.....	215,000,000	142,000,000	22,000,000
1825	.....	255,000,000	176,000,000	39,000,000
1826	.....	250,000,000	204,000,000	25,000,000
1827	.....	270,000,000	294,000,000	29,000,000
1828	.....	325,000,000	210,000,000	22,000,000
1829	.....	365,000,000	264,000,000	26,000,000
1830	.....	350,000,000	298,000,000	30,000,000
1831	800,000,000	385,000,000	277,000,000	25,000,000
1832	.....	390,000,000	372,000,000	32,000,000
1833	.....	445,000,000	324,000,000	36,900,000
1834	.....	460,000,000	384,000,000	49,000,000
1835	.....	.....	.....	61,000,000

Export Sea Island from S. Carolina and Georgia. ..... 1834 .... 8,085,000 lbs.
" " " " " ..... 1835 .... 7,752,000 lbs.

Growth of	1791. mil. lbs.	1801. mil. lbs.	1811. mil. lbs.	1821. mil. lbs.	1831. mil. lbs.	1834. mil. lbs.
Brazil	22	36	35	33	38	30
West Indies	12	10	12	10	9	8
Egypt	..	..	½	6	18	25
Rest of Africa	45	46	44	40	36	34
India	130	160	170	175	180	185
Rest of Asia	190	160	146	135	115	110
Mexico and S. America, except Brazil	68	56	57	44	35	35
Elsewhere	..	15	11	8	4	13

2.—PRODUCE OF AMER. STATES, AND VALUE OF THE CROP OF EACH.

	1791. mil. lbs.	1801. mil. lbs.	1811. mil. lbs.	1821. mil. lbs.	1826. mil. lbs.	1833. mil. lbs.	1834. mil. lbs.
South Carolina	1½	20	40	50	70	73	65
Georgia	½	10	20	45	75	88	75
Virginia	..	5	8	12	25	13	10
Tennessee	..	1	3	20	45	50	45
North Carolina	..	4	7	10	18	10	9
Louisiana	..	..	2	10	38	55	62
Alabama	..	..	..	20	45	65	85
Mississippi	..	..	..	10	30	70	85
Arkansas	..	..	..	..	½	½	½

These tables were compiled by the secretary from the best data within his reach.

3.—PRICE AND VALUE OF THE COTTON CROP IN THE UNITED STATES.

	Price per lb.	Val. Crop in U. S	Crop elsewhere.
1791	26 cents.	$333,000	$40,500,000
1801	44 "	8,000,000	39,330,000
1811	15½ "	12,500,000	37,000,000
1821	16 "	30,000,000	37,000,000
1831	9½ "	38,500,000	29,225,000
1834	13 "	76,000,000	36,333,000
1835	16½ "	.....	.....

It appears on the authority of the same report of the Secretary of the Treasury, that for every thousand bags of cotton imported into England in 1790, only one bag was received from the United States; only 1 bag for every 126 in 1792; 1 in every 25 in 1795; and that in 1799 one-ninth of the British cotton imports were from the United States. In 1800 she received sixteen millions of pounds from the United States, six millions from India, one-fifth of a million from Brazil, one-third of a million from the West Indies.

4.—IMPORTS OF COTTON INTO ENGLAND.

	1820. mil. lbs.	1825. mil. lbs.	1830. mil. lbs.	1834. mil. lbs.	1835. mil. lbs.
From United States	90	140	211	266	253
" India	23	20	12	39	42
" Brazil	29	3	30	19	30
" West Indies, etc.	2	8	4	1½	30
" Egypt and Turkey	¼	14	5	1¼	..

The United States supplied France in 1821 with 27 millions pounds of cotton, 20 millions in 1825, 75 millions in 1830, 79 millions in 1834, and 91 millions in 1835.

The whole stock taken by France from all the world was 44 millions pounds in 1820, 61 millions in 1825, 84 millions in 1830, 88 millions in 1834, and 94 millions in 1835. Other countries of Europe, says the Report, than those enumerated, import considerable quantities of raw cotton. Holland and Belgium 10 to 12 millions pounds. In 1830 Germany took 12 millions pounds, 19 millions in 1831, and 25 millions in 1832. The Hanse towns (1835) took from 2 to 6 millions pounds yearly, and Russia 1 million from the United States. Belgium in 1834 imported 13 millions pounds, and Lombardy 4 millions.

EXPORTS OF COTTON FROM THE UNITED STATES OTHER THAN TO ENGLAND AND FRANCE.

Years.	To Russia. lbs.	Holland & Belg. lbs.	Spain. lbs.	Trieste. lbs.	Hanse Towns. lbs.	Italy & Malta. lbs.	Other places. lbs.
1821	304,000	4,186,000	295,000	34,000	748,000	897,000	2,507,000
1822	714,000	1,970,000	....	210,000	2,956,000	1,956,000	40,600
1823	360,000	4,650,000	....	178,000	2,356,000	217,000	833,000
1824	591,000	432,000	....	....	292,000	....	227,000
1825	134,000	1,420,000	....	....	577,000	....	509,000
1826	15,000	4,592,000	....	33,000	2,013,000	....	1,820,000
1827	147,000	5,861,000	8,000	183,000	3,390,000	148,000	1,440,000
1828	650,000	3,781,000	....	980,000	3,386,000	407,000	1,072,000
1829	228,000	9,595,000	....	4,071,000	6,858,000	1,056,000	1,961,000
1830	111,000	8,561,000	32,000	2,814,000	4,123,000	235,000	638,000
1831	762,000	972,000	555,000	2,778,000	2,417,000	306,000	2,243,000
1832	839,000	3,920,000	2,834,000	1,655,000	4,075,000	581,000	2,250,000
1833	1,447,000	2,673,000	758,000	1,107,000	1,871,000	....	1,760,000
1834	1,260,000	6,096,000	892,000	3,805,000	6,613,000	191,000	1,153 000
1835	947,000	5,694,000	878,000	4,943,000	2,788,000	13,000	1,494,000

Out of an import of 31,447,605 pounds of cotton in 1790, Britain exported 944,154 pounds; in 1800, the export was 4,416,610, out of an import of 56,010,732 pounds; in 1805, the export was 804,243, out of an import of 50,682,406 pounds; in 1810, the export was 8,757,109, out of an import of 132,488,935 pounds.

The following table, which we extract from McCulloch, brings down the amount of British trade in this article to 1832:

IMPORTS OF COTTON INTO GREAT BRITAIN, STOCKS, PRICES, ETC.

Years.	Total Imports into Great Britain. pounds.	Stock in the Ports 31st December. pounds.	Total Deliveries for Consumption. pounds.	Amount of Crop in North America. pounds.	Average Price Uplands, per pound.
1814....	73,728,000....	22,272,000....	80,640 000....	.....	....28*d.*
1815....	96,200,000....	22,360,000....	85,800,000....	.....	....20½*d.*
1816....	97,310,000....	22,355,000....	88,631,000....	.....	....18½*d.*
1817....	126,240,000....	31,034,000....	108,356,000....	.....	....20*d.*
1818....	173,940,000....	85,800,000....	111,800,000....	.....	....20*d.*
1819....	137,592.000....	88.452,000....	108 864,000....	.....	....13½*d.*
1820....	147,576,000....	103,458,000....	125,646,000....	160,000 000....	17 cents.
1821....	126,420 000....	106,800,000....	126,420.000....	180 000,000....	16 "
1822....	141,510,000....	76,362,000....	144,180,000....	210,000,000....	16½ "
1823....	183,700,000....	105,875.000....	147,125,000....	185,000,000....	11 "
1824....	147,420,000....	64.428 000....	174.174,000....	215,000,000....	15 "
1825....	244,360 000....	123,968,000....	169,264,000....	255 000,000....	21 "
1826....	170,520,000....	100,548,000....	164,640,000....	350,000,000....	11 "
1827....	264,330,000....	134,244,000....	211,167,000....	270,000,000....	9½ "
1828....	222,750,000....	120,582,000....	217,701.000....	325,000,000....	10½ "
1829....	218,324,000....	84,966,000....	221,676,000....	365,000 000....	10 "
1830....	259,856,000....	95,350,000....	242 000,000....	350,000,000....	10 "
1831....	280,080,000....	84,090,000....	257,500 000....	385,000,000....	9½ "
1832....	270,690,000....	73,560,000....	259,980,000....	390,000,000....	10 "

STATEMENT OF COTTON IN GREAT BRITAIN.

	1833. pounds.	1834. pounds.	1835. pounds.
Imported.....	303,656,837.....	326,875.425.....	363,702.963
Exported.....	17,363,822.....	24,461,963.....	32,779,734
Left for consumption....	286,293,015.....	302,413,462.....	330 923,229

Average price in the United States in 1833, 11 cents; in 1834, 13 cents; in 1835, 16½ cents per pound.

From 1822 to 1835, the highest quantity of cotton which France ever took in one year from all the world, was 324,425 bags, and the lowest, 169,845 bags; the mean average for the whole period being about 250,000 bags per annum.

The French, under Bonaparte, attempted to introduce the culture of cotton in France. In 1807, a distinguished agriculturist, Monsieur Lasteyrie, was employed by that government to give instructions relative to the culture of the cotton plant. He published a treatise on the subject, entitled "Du Cotonier, et de sa Culture," in which he gives an account of the various kinds of cotton in different parts of the world, and the modes of cultivating it. The Minister of the Interior also, at the same time, sent a circular letter to the Prefects of all the departments, requesting their particular attention to the cultivation of cotton, and informing them that he had sent for cotton seed to Spain, Italy, and North America, to be distributed to the different departments, and offering a premium of one franc* for every killogramme (two pounds English) of cotton raised and cleaned ready for spinning. It is understood that the experiment, if ever made, did not succeed.

The following table, taken from Pitkin's Statistical View of the United States, will exhibit the amount of our exports of Sea Island cotton from 1800 to 1816. We shall in another place bring down the table to the present day.

* A franc is about twenty cents, making a premium of about ten cents for a pound of cotton.

COTTON—SEA ISLAND.

Whither exported.	1805. Pounds.	1806. Pounds.	1807. Pounds.	1808. Pounds.
Holland	64,628	....	....	....
Great Britain	8,563,274	6,002,617	8,728,162	941,001
France	156,442	75,451	188,572	....
Average price	....	30 cts.	30 cts.	39 cts.

Whither exported.	1809. Pounds.	1810. Pounds.	1811. Pounds.	1812. Pounds.
Russia	67,188	....	113,435	56,700
Sweden	3,023,226	202,771	19,368	1,411
Swedish West Indies	173,257	....	....	....
Denmark and Norway	30,000	109,202	....	....
Holland	....	47,871	....	33,316
Great Britain	2,266,505	4,758,783	7,688,865	3,838,390
France	....	....	....	356,263
Spain	....	50,710	....	....
Spanish West Indies	397,159	....	....	10,500
Portugal	110,444	734,739	....	....
Madeira	1,002,768	....	....	....
Europe (generally)	168,000	138,020	....	7,006
Floridas	852,461	2,510,475	....	52,500
Fayal and the other Azores	372,769	120,512	....	....
Average price	25 cts.	28 cts.	26 cts.	....

Whither exported.	1813. Pounds.	1814. Pounds.	1815. Pounds.	1816. Pounds.
Russia	60,000	....	....	....
Sweden	667,219	....	....	....
Holland	....	....	25,953	....
Great Britain	....	....	7,010,753	8,868,054
France	2,304,566	94,975	666,390	989,092
Spain	49,300	....	....	....
Spanish West Indies	218,296	413,412	....	....
Portugal	82,428	....	....	....
Europe (generally)	....	....	96,765	40,430
Floridas	753,050	2,011,951	645,901	....
Hamburg, Bremen, &c.	....	....	4,189	....
Gibraltar	....	....	....	2,750
Average price	....	28 cts.	31 cts.	47 cts.

Note.—There was not any distinction made between the *Sea Island* and *other* Cotton, until the year 1805.

COTTON—OTHER THAN SEA ISLAND.

Whither exported.	1805. Pounds.	1806. Pounds.	1807. Pounds.	1808. Pounds.
Denmark and Norway	....	....	272,134	....
Holland	881,584	3,129,146	3,146,209	491,814
Great Britain	24,006,799	18,253,840	44,452,049	7,051,592
Hamburg, Bremen, &c.	122,003	955,400	993,342	14,860
France	4,427,887	7,006,667	5,925,786	2,087,450
Average price	....	22 cts.	21 cts.	20 cts.

Whither exported.	1809. Pounds.	1810. Pounds.	1811. Pounds.	1812. Pounds.
Russia	567,934	3,769,137	9,255,404	727,748
Prussia	....	936,579	231,679	....
Sweden	9,939,934	5,234,293	252,310	303,086
Swedish West Indies	....	168,500	....	....
Denmark and Norway	2,268,887	14,484,922	732,448	....

Whither exported.	1809. Pounds.	1810. Pounds.	1811. Pounds.	1812. Pounds.
Holland	1,068,096	100,869	....	115,714
Great Britain	11,099,482	31,413,132	39,083,587	22,948,789
Hamburg, Bremen, &c.	1,067,013	976,762	1,836,288	....
France	....	....	....	558,150
Spain	796,496	4,292,055	228,880	....
Spanish West Indies	534,766	55,740	....	79,117
Portugal	1,733,081	2,870,142	....	....
Madeira	3,722,260	2,936,738	....	6,153
Floridas	1,059,293	10,339,019	177,200	....
Europe (generally)	771,860	1,922,239	860,993	99,172
Fayal and the other Azores	6,139,263	4,294,091	....	....
Average price	15 cts.	15 cts.	14 cts.	....

Whither exported.	1813. Pounds.	1814. Pounds.	1815. Pounds.	1816. Pounds.
Russia	307,600	....	676,516	92,344
Prussia	....	....	699,000	....
Sweden	2,545,945	129,166	264,899	113,799
Swedish West Indies	10,909	....	....	....
Denmark and Norway	....	....	156,207	68,878
Holland	902,000	....	5,143,516	1,943,270
Great Britain	....	....	36,658,339	48,925,159
Hamburg, Bremen, &c.	41,585	....	1,346,283	1,947,050
France	7,895,782	1,566,110	19,311,753	17,035,475
Spain	1,045,937	....	120,186	20,793
Spanish West Indies	851,381	3,069,577	136,666	....
Portugal	1,085,774	262,336	262,856	48,848
Madeira	5,268	....	....	1,525
Floridas	963,666	10,181,480	3,543,286	....
Europe (generally)	....	....	4,007,189	1,660,302
Average price	....	13 cts.	20 cts.	27 cts.

We have brought down our subject, in most of its particulars, to the year 1835, and discover with regret that it has grown upon us so rapidly that we have nearly exhausted the space which is reasonable to be occupied in a single number of our journal. There yet remain ten of the most interesting years in relation to the cotton trade to be examined (from 1836 to 1846), and we have not yet touched upon that wide and prolific field of investigation which was to occupy the sixth head of our article—*the future prospects of cotton*. We are forced into a change of plan, and terminate the statistics of trade here, to resume them in future numbers of our journal. The subject will lose nothing of interest or value by the delay which is thus occasioned.

Before coming to a conclusion, however, we will briefly explain the different varieties of cotton which are now being brought into competition with that of American growth, or may hereafter be elevated to such competition. These varieties are comprised under the general heads of South American, Smyrna, Egyptian, West and East Indian cottons.

South American.—The climate of this portion of our continent is adapted to the cotton culture in no inconsiderable degree. Brazilian cottons are in high repute in the markets of the world, and receive the different appellations of Pernambuco, Maranham, Bahia, Para, etc. The Pernambuco is of the best description, and it enjoyed for a long period the reputation of being superior to any other than Sea

Island or Bourbon. The Guiana, or Demerara is described as a strong glossy wool of superior length but of unequal fibre, well cleaned and picked, but of only ordinary fineness.

Smyrna.—This is from the Levant, and supplied once almost the whole demand of Europe. For manufacturing purposes it is very inferior, but answers very well from its inflammable nature for candle wicks.

Egyptian.—About the year 1823, this cotton, of the long staple species, and of superior fineness, began to be imported into Europe. The Pacha, Mehemet Ali, revived its culture in Egypt after it had been suffered to decline for many centuries and entirely to fall away. The experiment having succeeded on a small scale, and demonstrated the capacity of the soil and climate, the crop from that time began to demand very general attention, and the consequence is, that at the present day it has become one of great importance. The bags are scarcely more than half the size of those made in this country. The Sea Island cotton seed was tested in Egypt in 1827 with signal success. The crops are very irregular.

West Indian.—All of the South American, and most of the West Indian cotton, says Mr. Baines, is long stapled and is produced from the shrub, not the herbaceous plant. It is supposed that some of the first cotton grown there was in the island of Tobago, by Mr. Robley, between the years 1789 and 1792, but in consequence of a fall in the price of cotton, and a rise in the price of sugar, that gentleman discontinued the cultivation of the former for that of the latter.

East Indian.—The cotton of the East Indies ranges lowest in quality and value. It is imported in large quantities into Europe, but, from want of skill in cultivation, and in picking, excites but little regard. Every effort has been made on the part of the British authorities to improve the quality of this staple, but thus far the efforts have been fruitless, and, although millions have been expended, the desired result seems no nearer attained than at first. The policy of Britain has been to build up her East at the expense of her West India possessions, and ultimately, in the production of cotton at least, at the expense of the United States; and, indeed, if nature did not present an insuperable obstacle, the last would have long since been effected, for there has been no want of capital and enterprise on her part.

"The people of the South," we quote from an article in the Southern Quarterly, "have been dreaming that their old enemy, Lord Cornwallis, was dead, and that he would never trouble the South more. Though dead, he lives in marble and on canvas in Great Britain, and in the cotton, rice, sugar, and indigo plantations throughout the British empire in India. He was defeated, it is true, in the South, by Washington and Lafayette, but in less than ten years from that defeat he succeeded in conquering fifty millions of people in Asia, stripped Tippoo Saib of half his dominions, and, as if in vengeance for his defeat in America, raised up in Asia a powerful competition which now threatens to rob the South of her agricultural wealth. In 1698 the East India Company purchased three little villages extending about three miles on the eastern margin of the Ganges. The ground on which these villages stood forms the site of the great city

of Calcutta, containing at present upward of 600,000 inhabitants. It is the only commercial rival which New Orleans has to dread in the whole world."

It has been regarded as worthy of note, that on the very day that the bill passed in England for abolishing slavery in the West Indies, an act was passed for effecting an arrangement with the East India Company, and for the better government of His Majesty's Indian territories. A despotic government is then established, giving to an English governor-general or overseer full power over the lives and property of all persons except native-born Englishmen.

Under so complete a system, the East India Company went forthwith into the cultivation of cotton on an extensive scale. They sent to the United States an agent to procure men accustomed to the improved growth of the staple in Louisiana. Eight or ten individuals of this description were found, who, in consideration of the high inducements held out, left Natchez, Mississippi, in 1840, in the service of the Company, carrying with them seed cotton, gins, models of gin houses, etc. Their term of service was agreed upon for five years. From the manner in which Captain Bayles, the servant of the Company was received in this country, says the Quarterly, and the object of his mission promoted, the thought occurred to us, that the South, so famous for the refinement and intelligence of its inhabitants, was nevertheless behind the age in a species of knowledge of vital importance. On any other supposition the open-hearted generous hospitality with which they welcomed Captain Bayles, and strove to be foremost in promoting the object of his mission cannot be satisfactorily accounted for. We all know, however, that, with all the capital of the Company, the judgment of the agent, and the skill of the American planters, this experiment in India has entirely failed; and that those who have returned home, consider the undertaking of producing fine cotton as altogether hopeless.

We shall conclude with a remark upon American cotton. We have stated that next to the Sea Island the Louisiana is most valuable in market. The term Bowed cotton attached to our uplands has been thus explained:—In the East, after the operation of ginning, a large bow made elastic by a complication of strings, is brought into contact with the cotton, the strings being struck vibrate, and thus winnow away all the dust and dirt, and leave the clear fleece. This method was at an early period in constant use in America, thus giving occasion to the use of the name we are considering.

Art. II.—RICE.

The State of South Carolina, small in territory, in population, and in relative weight in the scale of the Union, is blest with a most delightful climate, regarding together all the seasons, and in the possession of the elements of great and lasting wealth.

In the production of her two great staples, her agriculture exercises an important influence over the comfort and well-being of mankind. With the various manufactures of cotton wool, the greater portion of

the human race are clothed. With the manufactured or prepared rice, the greater portion of the human race are fed—as an article either of occasional diet or of daily subsistence.

Rice was known and cultivated in the East from time immemorial. Whenever that hitherto sealed book, the Chinese empire, shall be opened to the inspection of mankind, we may learn something more of its early history and culture; at present we only know from the books that a large proportion of the inhabitants of that ancient dominion subsist upon it, and we are told that it is grown sometimes by transplanting on the shores of the rivers, sometimes on rafts covered with earth and floating on lakes and rivers—that in some parts of China two crops are made from the same ground in one year, one ripening in May, the other in October or November—that the seeds are there white and oblong, but vary in size and form—that a small spot of ground is inclosed by an embankment, lightly plowed and harrowed, and the grain previously steeped in dung diluted with animal water is then sown thickly on it; a thin sheet of water is immediately brought over it, either by a stream or chain pump. When the plants are six or seven inches high, they are transplanted in furrows made by the plough, so as to stand about a foot apart every way. Water is then brought over them, and kept on till the crop begins to ripen, when it is withheld; so that when the harvest arrives, the field is quite dry. In Japan, Ceylon, and Java, aquatic rice is cultivated nearly in the same manner. To this grain the Chinese and Hindoos owe their early civilization. An immense population in those and the surrounding countries is now dependent on the rice crops; and when these fail, thousands perish of hunger.*

* The Chinese, who pay the greatest attention to the cultivation of rice, manure their lands with all sorts of filth, dung, &c.

In order to make the rice grow the better, they are careful, in certain places where they sow, to bury bolls of hogs' hair or any other sort of hair, which, according to them, gives strength and vigor to the land, and makes the rice better; those whose business it is to shave the head are very careful in saving the hair till the inhabitants of these parts come to purchase it for about a half-penny per pound, carrying it away in bags, and you may often see barks loaded with nothing else.

When the plant begins to ear, if the land be watered with spring water, they mix quicklime with it, pretending that it kills worms and insects, destroys weeds, and gives a warmth to the ground very much tending to make it fruitful.*

"Account, geographical, statistical and historical, of Orissa proper, or Cuttach," a territory in India lying on the river Hoogly and the sea.†

Rice is the great article of produce, and consequently of food, throughout Orissa proper. In the Pergunnahs north of the Byterini it is almost the sole object of agricultural labor. The grain is in general large and nutritious but coarse, and is considered inferior to the average produce of Bengal and Behar.

The crops of Cuttach are called Sared and Beali. Of these, the first and principal one is sown in May and June, and reaped in from the middle of November to January (a second crop rare). The second in importance, called the Beali, is sown about the same time on the higher lands, and reaped from end of August to end of September.

Also an inferior description of rice, which is sown in low, marshy spots at the opening of the cold weather, and by frequent transplantation and irrigation is rendered fit for cutting in the following April. The cultivation of the latter sort, which is called Dalo, takes place chiefly in the Pergunnahs between Khunda, the Chilka lake, and the sea.

"The Soomla or Himalaya Paddy, or Mountain Rice, received from Mr. Hodgson, resident at Nepal, appears to be of the same kind as a sample (comprising five varieties) sent to the Society of Arts, in 1821, by Dr. Wallach.‡

"The high rice is nearly of the same quality as the latter kind" (East India rice inferior), being dark-colored, opaque, and not at all calculated for the English market.

* Du Halde's History of China (1741), p. 169.
† "Asiatic Researches," or Transactions of the Asiatic Society in Bengal, pp. 15, 171.
‡ "Report of the London Society of Arts." Journal of the Asiatic Society for 1832, vol. v., pp. 302-303.

BOTANICAL DESCRIPTION.

CLASS *Hexandria*: ORDER *Digynia*: NAT. ORD. *Gramina*.

Oryza Sativa—Native of Ethiopia—cultivated in tropical countries very abundantly, as well as in some of the warmer parts of Europe, in grounds for the most part artificially inundated. Annual—flowers

After being cut down, the *Malsi* rice is stacked on the field and left to become heated and to ferment six or eight days, after which the stacks are pulled to pieces and the grain, separated from the straw by shaking the sheaf and beating it a few times on the ground, is winnowed by being shaken to the wind from a shallow platter made of mat and bamboo, and dried in the sun. The grain thus treated is called hukwa, and is much liked.

Another mode is to beat out the rice with a long stick as it lays upon the ground. All the grain in the valley is separated from the straw on the field, and carried home, after being winnowed, in bags and baskets. It is reaped with a sickle.

The *Chusa* is made thus: the rice in husk (dhan) being steeped in water for a day and night, is roasted for a short time on a stone or large tile heated for the purpose; when thus parboiled, and while still soft, it is thrown into the wooden mortar and bruised into thin flat cakes, in which state, having been separated from the husks and dried, it is sold in the shops and eaten by the people. A native of Nepal, or of Bengal and Behar, will be satisfied to live on this substance alone for many days together; a small quantity of *Sukur* (unpurified, partially crystallized sugar) added, gives it a most grateful relish to the rarely stimulated palates of these poor and primitive people.

Kuti (*Newori*), the machine for converting the dhan into eatable rice, by husking it, is the same as that for making *Surki* from bricks, hence called the *Dhenki*.*

Captain Charles Wilkes, of the U. S. Navy, the intelligent and able commander of the recent exploring expedition, informs me that, except at Manilla, no specimens of rice were obtained by the expedition, the crops not being in a state to furnish specimens—he has obligingly furnished the following remarks: "In Brazils you have the result of Mr. Brackenridge's actual observation; he was horticulturist to the expedition. I may add that the rice of Brazil, as an article of commerce, is not esteemed in comparison with our best rice, and does not keep well; this is also the case with the rices of the Philippine Islands. Of the latter you have an account handed me for you by Mr. Rich, our botanist, which he obtained from the best authorities. Speaking well the Spanish language, he was enabled to obtain much information, and had much intercourse with several distinguished gentlemen of Manilla who are well acquainted with this branch of cultivation.

"Instead of the word *Paddy* being applied to Mountain Rice exclusively, as Loudon has it, in the Philippine Islands and at Singapore they apply it to all rice with the husk on; this I found invariably their practice. The rice fields of the Philippine Islands, the Water rice, both before and after it is growing yield a large supply of fish for the inhabitants; some, it is said, much over a pound in weight and a foot in length! The only mode they have of cleaning the rice of the husk is to beat it in a wooden mortar by hand; this each family does for itself, it being sold as Paddy.

"All the aquatic kinds are planted in July and August by hand, and are reaped in December. The Upland rice comes much sooner to maturity, and is much esteemed, though they do not raise any great quantity.

"Near Singapore there are no rice fields yet, the country is better adapted for sugar; it is imported from Cochin China and China. We have had no opportunity of getting the information you desire, relative to the rices of Sumatra and Java. The specimens of rice obtained at Manilla are small and not in such a state as to be preserved for usefulness. Any description of those mentioned by Mr. Rich may be obtained from our consul at Manilla, immediately after the crop is gathered; it will afford me pleasure to be instrumental in procuring such as you may desire.

In Brazil,† toward the base of the Organ Mountains, where the country is rich and flat, the cultivation of rice is carried on to a considerable extent. At one place, on the banks of a small river, we observed not less than seventy acres sown with rice.

The following, apparently, was the mode of cultivating it there. Dykes or dams, in breadth three or four feet, inclosed from two to three acres. These inclosures were either square or oblong, as suited the nature of the ground, which had been plowed, made fine and level, with several furrows or runs through the centre of each, for the purpose of draining the surface. In the dykes were two or more gaps or sluices, to flood or let off the water at will. The young rice plants, when we saw them, were from two to three inches high; the ground was moist to saturation, but not flooded. We were told that water would be let on in a few days, and allowed to remain till the plants were

* "Report of the London Society of Arts." Journal of the Asiatic Society for 1838, vol. v., pp. 962, 963.
† D. Brackenridge, horticulturist attached to the U. S. Exploring Expedition under the command of Charles Wilkes, Esq., U. S. Navy.

in midsummer. *Root* fibrous—*Herb* grassy, about four or five feet high—light green, smooth—leaves linear, narrow, taper-pointed. *Stipula* long, abrupt, jagged, crowning the very long striated sheath—*Panicle* terminal, much branched, many flowered, nearly erect, slightly spreading; its branches angular, rough. *Flowers*, when closed, obovate, oblique, or most gibbous at one side; their corolla somewhat hairy, minutely granulated or dotted. *Awn* straight, rough, various in length.

Rice—A plant cultivated in the East, in America, North and South,—in Africa, Spain, Italy, and Piedmont. Its stalk not unlike that of wheat, but fuller of joints, and with leaves resembling those of the leek. It branches into several stems, at the top of which the grain grows in clusters, and each is terminated with a beard, and inclosed in a yellow rough husk. When stripped of this, the seed appears to be oval in shape, of a shining white color, and almost transparent. One species, several varieties.

1. Common Rice—Stem four feet high—panicle spiked, simple—husk pale, oblong, with long awns or beard, a late sort—grows in moist places; injured by either drought or salt water.

2. Early Rice—Stem three feet high—panicle spiked—branched—husk tinged, brownish-red—awns shorter—grows in marshy places; is not injured by salt inundations.

3. Mountain Rice—Stem three feet, more slender—husk longer, the awns very long—grows in dry situations; exposed to cold—exposed to continued inundation, it decays—sea-water kills it.

in flower. The soil was a deep, rich, black earth. This culture on the part of the Brasilians resembles very much that of the Westphalians.

Several patches of rice were seen at the Sandwich Islands, near Honolulu.

The varieties of rice cultivated at the Philippine Islands* are very numerous; the natives distinguish them by the size and shape of the grain: the following are some of the most esteemed varieties:

Binambang—With the leaves slightly hairy, glumes whitish, grows to the height of about five feet, flowers in December. Aquatic.

Lammyo—Greatly resembles the above, is more extensively cultivated, particularly in Batangas, where it is the principal article of food among the inhabitants of the coast.

Malagequit—This variety derives its name from its becoming very glutinous after boiling; it is much used by the natives in making sweet and fancy dishes, but is considered unwholesome; it is also used in making a whitewash,† which is remarkable for its brilliancy and for withstanding rain, &c. Aquatic.

Bentot Cabayo—Common in Ilocos, where it is cultivated, both upland and in water: it produces a large grain, and is therefore much valued, but it has rather a rough taste.

Dumali—or early rice. This variety is raised in the uplands exclusively, and derives its name from ripening its grain three months from planting; the seed is rather broader and shorter than the other varieties; it is not extensively cultivated, as birds and insects are very destructive to it.

Quinanda—With smooth leaves. This variety is held in great estimation by the people of Batangas, as they say it swells more in boiling than any other variety. It is sown in May and gathered in October. Upland.

Bolohan—This variety has very hairy glumes: it is not held in much esteem by the natives, but is cultivated on account of its not being so liable to the attacks of insects and diseases as most of the other upland varieties.

Malagequit—Smooth leaves, glumes red, in all the above they are whitish. It possesses all the qualities of the aquatic variety of the same name, that of becoming very glutinous after boiling, &c. This rice is sold to be a remedy for worms in horses, soaked in water with the husk on. It is given mixed with honey and water.

Tangi—Leaves slightly hairy, glumes light violet color. This upland variety is much esteemed for its fine flavor.

* Mr. Rich, the botanist attached to the U. S. Exploring Expedition, under the command of Charles Wilkes, Esq., U. S. Navy.

† Small rice is used in the lower parts of Carolina for making whitewash with lime, and with good effect.

4. Glutinous or Clammy Rice—Stem four feet high, leaves wider, yellowish—panicle large, with shorter awns—seed oblong, rather large, glutinous, very white—grows in both wet and dry places.

There is a variety having a black seed highly flavored, as well as another having red seed. Rice seems to contain more silex in its composition than most of its natural order. Even the seed is not destitute of this substance. Brilliant imitations of precious stones are said to have been made of rice, for which purpose a large quantity of the grain is required.*

ORYZA—from the Arabic *Eruz*.—In modern Europe, *Riz*, *Reis*, *Rice*.

Oryza sativa, the common rice, has the culm or stem from one to six feet in length; annual, erect, simple, round, jointed; leaves subulate-linear, reflex, embracing, not fleshy, flowers in a terminal panicle; calycine, leaflets lanceolate, valves of the corolla equal in length, the inner valve even, awnless; the outer twice as wide, four grooved, hispid, awned; style single, two parted.

Oryza Mutica, the dry or mountain rice, cultivated in Ceylon, Java, and of late in Hungary, has the culm or stem three feet high, and more slender; fruit longish, with awns the longest of all. It is sown on mountains and in dry soil; rots with a long inundation, and perishes with sea-water.

The varieties of rice as of other cultivated grains, are as numerous as the different soils, climates, and other physical circumstances, in which it is cultivated; besides the dry rice, the chief sorts, by some considered species, are the *O. præcox*, or early rice, and the *O. glutinosa*, or clammy rice, both cultivated in irrigated lands.

The native place of rice, like that of the other sorts of grain in common use, is unknown,

In the hilly parts of Java, and in many of the Eastern islands, the mountain rice is planted upon the sides of hills, where no water but rain can come; it is, however, planted in the beginning of the rainy season, and reaped in the beginning of the dry season. The natives call it *paddy gunung*, which signifies mountain rice. It is entirely unknown in the western parts of India, but it is well known in Cochin China, where it thrives in dry, light soils, mostly on the sides of hills, not requiring more moisture than the usual rains and dews supply, neither of which are frequent at the season of its vegetation.

There is a kind of hill rice which is hardy enough to grow on the edge of the Himalayan snows; it is almost to be expected that this will, at some future time, prove an acquisition of value to the European cultivator.

In Lombardy and Savoy, rice is sown on rich lands, the sower often wading to the knees in the water; one crop a year only is obtained, but four crops are often taken in succession.

In Westphalia, and some other parts of the south of Germany, rice has long been cultivated; there it is sown on lands that admit of irrigation, but water is not admitted till the seed has germinated, and it is withdrawn, as in Italy, when the crop comes into flower. From long culture in a comparatively cold country, the German rice has acquired a remarkable degree of hardness and adaptation to the cli-

* Rees' Cyclopedia.—Art. Oryza.

mate, a circumstance which has frequently been alluded to as an encouragement to the acclimating of exotics. It is found, Dr. Walker remarks, that rice seeds direct from India will not ripen in Germany at all, and even that Italian or Spanish seeds are much less early and hardy than those ripened on the spot. In Hungary rice has not been long cultivated; the mountain sort has chiefly been tried, and that in the manner of our barley or summer wheat.

In England a crop of rice has been obtained near Windsor, on the banks of the Thames.

By far the best imported rice is from Carolina; it is larger and better tasted than that of India, which is small, meagre, and the grains frequently broken.*

The varieties of rice which are most common with us in Carolina, are:

1. The *Gold Seed Rice*, the ordinary crop rice most highly esteemed, and therefore universally cultivated—an oblong grain 3-8ths of an inch in length, slightly flattened on two sides, of a deep yellow or golden color, awn short; when the husk and inner coat are removed, the grain presents a beautiful pearly-white appearance—an ellipsoid in figure, and somewhat translucent. This rice has been introduced into the Winyaw and Waccamaw region, since the Revolution. It was planted by Col. Mayham, on Santee, in 1785.

2. The *Guinea Rice*, so called from its resemblance to one of the varieties of Guinea corn, in the shape of the head and clustering of the grains. In color the same, or perhaps a little deeper; the grain of this variety is in shape both broader and shorter, but not thicker than No. 1. In figure, a sort of oblong spheroid, compressed on two opposite sides, so as to be nearly twice as broad as it is thick; awn short, blunt; it is not cultivated as a crop, and is rarely met with.

3. The *Common White Rice*, in shape and general description like No. 1, except that the color of the husk is white or cream-colored, and the grain when hulled is not as broad, nor as pearly; awn short. Some grains of this mixed with a sample of Seed Rice, constitute an objection to it, although it is this variety that constituted the earlier crops of the country.

4. The *White Bearded Rice*, very much the same as No. 3, in general characteristics. The grain of this kind is rather larger, and is furnished in its unhulled state with a very long awn or beard—grows well on high land. A sample of this last was brought from the East Indies in 1842, by Capt. Petigru, U. S. Navy. Some years ago it was cultivated more or less extensively by planters for their negroes.

There are several other kinds of rice in appearance, to be found in both the fields and the barn-yards, differing either in the size and shape of the grain, or in the size and appearance of the stem and leaflets. They are believed to be modifications of either one or other of the foregoing descriptions; none of these have, as yet, established a sufficient claim to be classed as distinct varieties.

They may be classed as

1. An improvement of the grain chiefly cultivated, arising from a long-continued, careful selection of seed, the vigorous nature of the soil in which it was successively planted, the peculiarities of the cul-

* Loudon's Encyclopedia of Plants—Art. Oryza.

tivation pursued consistently from year to year, and other circumstances. Of this character, it is believed, is the large grain rice so successfully produced by Col. Ward.*

2. A commingling of the grain, arising from a careless selection, or a neglect of selection of seed—and two or more of the foregoing varieties being planted in the same field, or in closely adjoining fields—the farina of each fructifying some plants of the other, etc.

3. A corruption or deterioration of the grain, arising from utter neglect and exposure of the seed to the vicissitudes of weather from year to year, or the being covered so deep in either earth or water, as not to have vegetated for years.

Of this last, the Volunteer Rice affords examples, viz.: the red grain having the same exterior husk as No. 1, with perhaps the awn a little longer; the red grain having a white husk like No. 3; and the red grain having the husk white like the last, with a longer awn, and dropping from the stem in the field as soon as it is matured—this kind of volunteer never can be harvested on the stem; it is sometimes stripped into bags and baskets, and used as horse and poultry feed. In either case, whether the grain has dropped from being touched, or has been stripped off for use, the stem, relieved of its superincumbent weight, stands erect and towers above the worthier and well-freighted heads of the surrounding fields. Hence it is called, in the vernacular, "Proud Rice."

The cultivation of rice in Carolina has added materially to the wealth of the province, the colony, the State; and has enhanced, in no inconsiderable degree, the value of the active commerce of both the kingdom of Great Britain and the federal republic of the United States.

It is destined to add still farther to the productive wealth of our country. The consumption of rice, it is believed, will continue steadily to increase in proportion as the various uses of this valuable grain shall be more generally ascertained, and rendered familiar in the useful and ornamental arts, as well as in its culinary preparations, as an ordinary vegetable, or a delicate luxury.†

* See Report of Committee on Rice to the State Agricultural Society of South Carolina, 1843, for Col. W's account of this grain.

† The following methods of preparing rice in the Cuisine, though common with us, may not be found in all the manuals of housekeeping. They are deemed not unworthy of being noticed.

To boil Rice.—Pick all the specks and gravel from the rice, then wash it thoroughly in cold water; have your pot of water boiling, add salt, and then put the rice in and stir it while boiling; let it boil four minutes, then pour off the water as close as you can, without stirring the rice, set the pot on some coals and cover it; let it remain twenty minutes, then dish it up for use. Prepared thus, it is the most simple among vegetables, is palatable, nutritious, and light. When boiled, rice is increased in bulk some 150 per cent., and in weight over 100 per cent. For dyspeptics there is no vegetable so innocent.

Rice Breakfast Bread.—Mix a spoonful of butter with some hot hommony, very thoroughly, and spread it to cool, then beat up an egg very light, add some milk, then mix in the hommony with rice flour* until it is a thick batter, add salt, *q. s.*, stir it well, then drop it from a spoon into an oven and bake quickly.—*Vaux.*

Another Rice Bread.—Have a bucket for the special purpose—mix over night some hommony, or the eyes of the rice, boiled soft, with milk and rice flour, having added salt,

* Rice flour is obtained by pounding into powder in a hand mortar the requisite quantity of milled rice—two quarts of rice will make nearly three quarts of flour. This is the best way to prepare it for immediate use; if kept, it soon becomes acid. It is sometimes ground by the mills. This keeps very well, but the rice cannot be so completely pulverized when ground. It is prepared thus at the New York steam rice mill, and packed in barrels for exportation.

By this grain a large portion of the human race actually subsist, and it is believed it may be yet more universally consumed. It is a vegetable which undergoes no very material change, from change of climate. When put up for exportation, it deteriorates less than any other grain or breadstuff whatever, and when cleaned and brushed in the best manner, it will keep sufficiently sweet and sound during the longest voyage.

Indeed, rough rice, or rice in its primitive state, before the chaff or husk has been removed, may be kept fresh and sweet for years; even should it, for a moment, have been immersed in water, the sun's warm rays, and a little dry air, effectually preserve it for a long time. One hour is sufficient to reduce a bushel of rough rice (one-half) to a state fit for cooking; and the only instrument requisite is simply a wooden mortar and pestle. *

Professor Liebig, in a note to his admirable and valued work on Chemistry, as applied to agriculture and physiology, p. 98, furnishes a chemical analysis of rice, in terms substantially the same as those in which the same analysis by Braconnot is given by Berzelius. According to the analysis of Braconnot, *Ann. de Chim. et de Phys.* t. iv. p. 370, this grain is thus constituted:

	Carolina Rice.	Piedmont Rice.
Water	5.00	7.00
Starch	85.07	83.80
Parenchyma	4.80	4.80
Gluten	3.60	3.60
Unchrystalizable sugar	0.29	0.05
Gummy matter approaching to starch	0.71	0.10
Oil	0.13	0.25
Phosphate of lime	0.13	0.40
	99.73	100.00

with traces of muriate of potash, phosphate of potash, acetic acid, sulphur, and lime, and potash united to a vegetable alkali.

Vauquelin was unable to detect any saccharine matter in rice.—*Thomson's Organic Chemistry*, p. 883.

EARLY INTRODUCTION AND CULTURE.

As early as the year 1666, the facilities afforded by the character of the low country of Carolina for the cultivation of this seed, were remarked by agents of the English interested in the settlement and improvement of the new world.* In less than forty years from that

q. s., into a stiff batter, so that it will just pour—set it where it will not get warm, which injures it; in the morning stir it, pour it into the pan and set it to bake.—*Gallavant.*

Griddles for Breakfast.—Mix a thin batter with milk and rice flour, adding salt, *q. s.*, have your griddle-iron hot, grease it with lard, pour some batter on, spread it thin, turn it and brown it both sides.

Rice Glue.—There is also a very good glue made from rice, by boiling the ground rice in soft water till it acquires the consistency of a thin jelly.—*Ency. Am.* This is one of the best cements for china-ware, shells, &c.

Starch from Rice.—This is said to be finer, whiter, and better, inasmuch as a given quantity will go farther than that produced from wheat. The manufacturers, however, allege that the material is too costly to justify their using it in making starch. Moreover, the difficulty of separating it from the gluten contained in this grain, is an obstacle in the way of its use. It is to be hoped that some of our chemists will yet discover a more ready and certain method of completing this process.

* In "A Brief Description of the Province of Carolina on the coasts of Florida, etc., printed for Robert Horne, near Bishopsgate street, London, in 1666," (the charter of

time the swamp seed was actually introduced and successfully cultivated in South Carolina.

It happened thus, by accident.* Landgrave Thomas Smith, or Smyth, as honest John Archdale wrote the name, on a visit to the East, before coming to this country, had observed the plant and some of the circumstances attending its culture. After settling in Carolina, it occurred to him that the low grounds and climate of the country were admirably adapted to this culture. Earnest in this opinion, and desirous of an opportunity to test its value by experience, Providence brought within his reach the only means necessary to do so; and thus by his instrumentality, bestowed upon a portion of the new world a great and permanent blessing. In the year 1694, after Landgrave Smith, dissatisfied with the province, had entertained thoughts of quitting it, a vessel from Madagascar, in distress, put into the harbor of Charleston, having on board a little rough rice, in the cook's bag. This rice was given to Mr. Smith, who planted it in a low, moist part of the garden, at his residence near White Point.† The plant grew luxuriantly, and the grain matured finely. The product was wisely and liberally disseminated as seed among the neighboring planters, who in their turn supplied other planters living more in the interior; and so on till this became the chief article of production, the staple commodity of the colony.

There is extant another account of the introduction of this valuable seed, which refers it to the year 1700‡ or thereabout, and associates with it the name of another gentleman, a Mr. Woodward.

It is further recorded§ that a Mr. Dubois, Treasurer of the East India Company, did, some short time after, send out to this country a small bag of seed rice. Whether these were distinct and successive importations, which is highly probable, and whether or not there were two or more varieties of the grain introduced, certain it is, the seed was so rapidly dispersed along the rivers, and inland swamps, that soon the province became a rice-growing country. And since, under different forms of government, as a colony of Great Britain, and as a sovereign State, constituting an integral part of the United States, under a federal republican form of government, the principal staple production of South Carolina has been the best rice in the world.

At first, rice was cultivated on the high land, and on little spots of low ground, as they were met with here and there. These low grounds being found to agree better with the plant, the inland swamps were cleared for the purpose of extending the culture. In

Carolina is dated the 30th of June, in the 17th year of the reign of Charles II,,) "it is mentioned, among other things, that the marshes and meadows are very large, from 1,500 to 3,000 acres and upwards, and are excellent food for cattle, and will bear any grain being prepared: some cattle, both great and small, will live well all winter, and keep their fat without fodder. The meadows are very proper for rice, rapeseed, linseed, and many of them be made to overflow at pleasure with a small charge.—2 *Car. Col.* 13.

* Ramsay's History of South Carolina, chap. 5th.

† A spot now traversed by Longitude Lane.

‡ In new land, well drained, under favorable circumstances, from one grain may be matured 24 ears or heads, carrying each from 10 to 380 grains. There is a tradition, that some forty years ago, a stalk of rice having 60 branches or tillers, was seen at the old butcher-pen, near Georgetown. There was grown the past year in the garden of Dr. E. T. Heriot, a plant from one grain having 70 branches.

§ 2 Carolina Col., p. 270.

the process of time, as the fields became too grassy and stubborn, they were abandoned for new clearings; and so on, until at length was discovered the superior adaptation of the tide-lands, and the great facilities for irrigation afforded by their location. For these, the inland plantations were gradually and slowly abandoned, until now, that the great body of land which little more than a century ago furnished for exportation over 50,000 barrels of rice, now lies utterly waste, constituting, where trees have not overgrown it, the finest natural pasture which could be desired.

As may very well be supposed, the seed was, at first, very sparingly sown, and the ground, being new, furnished an immense yield in return.

A peck of seed to the acre, sown thin in drills, eighteen inches apart, would, on good land, yield thirty, forty, fifty, and even sixty bushels, in proportion to the care bestowed on its culture.

As the grain became more plenty and common, and the space between the drills was slightly diminished, the quantity of seed was by little and little increased.

It is now from two to three bushels per acre, varying according to the character and condition of the land, and the peculiar notions of watering entertained by the planter—a free use of water justifying, and indeed requiring, a liberal allowance of seed.

The space between the drills now, from centre to centre, is thirteen, fourteen or fifteen inches—the best distance is thirteen inches, where water is used freely—the dry culture requires a more frequent use of the hoe, and therefore the largest space is preferable.

The average product of rice land at present varies from twenty-five to sixty bushels per acre, generally increasing in quantity, though deteriorated in quality, in an inverse ratio to latitude.*

The seed should be selected with the greatest attention to purity and maturity of the grain. A sample containing one red grain in one hundred grains, is considered by the best planters inferior. Seed rice, having a greater proportion of red or volunteer rice than one per cent., is totally unfit for planting. To procure the most mature rice for seed, a good plan is to thrash the rice over a barrel or large log, the butt of the sheaf being held by both hands. In this way the riper grains alone are whipped off, serving as seed; while the remainder on the sheaf is thrashed off in the usual way.

Product.—Within seventy degrees of latitude, radiating from the equator, this valuable grain is cultivated all over the globe—even in the Himalaya mountains there is said to be a variety naturalized and grown†—another, or possibly the same, in Siberia. From climate and peculiar treatment, the vegetable rice acquires a certain constitution, adapting itself to the habitude of the region in which it grows; it does not so readily succeed elsewhere, until it is acclimated by time. Grown in India, in China, in most of the Asiatic islands, in Southern Europe, in Africa, in South and North America, each country yields it own peculiar seed.

* The higher the latitude, generally, the better the rice in quality:—hence planters look to the northward of their own locality for their seed rice, when it can be obtained thence comparatively free of volunteer.

† Ency. Am.

In North America, although there is known on the margins of some of the Northern lakes a kind of wild rice, which, when that country was in a state of nature, furnished no little subsistence to the aborigines, yet it is scarcely cultivated north of the State of Virginia. The census of 1840 exhibits the following scale of production in the United States.

Taking the crop of 1839 as a basis—

Missouri	produced	65 lbs. rice.
Illinois	"	598 "
Virginia	"	3,084 "
Arkansas	"	5,967 "
Tennessee	"	8,455 "
Kentucky	"	16,848 "
Alabama	"	156,469 "
Florida Territory	produced	495,625 "
Mississippi	"	861,711 "
North Carolina	"	3,324,132 "
Louisiana	"	3,765,541 "
Georgia	"	13,417,909 "
South Carolina	"	66,897,244 "

As it is only in tide-water swamps that this grain can be cultivated to advantage, and therefore only in such lands that the culture will probably be extended, the system of culture pursued on the tide-lands of Carolina only will be detailed.

The swamp and marsh lands in this region, when in a state of nature, were overflowed by the tides in ordinary times. In the time of spring tides, they might have been found covered at high water to the depth of from twelve to twenty inches. When reclaimed they are furnished with a sufficient dam to exclude the tide-water, and a trunk, or framed culvert, furnished with a door at each end swinging upon long levers, which are attached to sturdy uprights, so as to admit or exclude the tide at pleasure—retain or discharge it, after being admitted. The large inclosure is subdivided by cross-banks, or dams, into fields of convenient size, containing variously from fourteen to twenty-two acres. In constructing the banks, large ditches, five to eight feet wide, are excavated to the depth of five feet, leaving between the ditch and bank, a margin of twelve feet or more. These serve to drain the field. From one of these ditches to another, in one direction, and at the distance of 37½ to fifty feet apart, are cut smaller ditches or drains, eighteen inches wide, and three feet deep. Thus thoroughly reclaimed, and completely drained, the swamp, if well seeded, will produce abundantly from the first. The following remarks, however, will be understood as applying to old land, from the surface of which stumps and marsh have entirely, or for the most part disappeared. In this condition are now found most of the lands in the rice-growing region. Fields, as they become exhausted by long-continued cropping, are revived by manuring with rice straw and tailings, or by turning under the spontaneous growth of a dry fallow for one or more years.*

* Southern Agriculturist, N. S., vol. iii. p. 243.

Mount Arena, Nov. 8, 1843.

Col. R. P. W. Allston.

Your queries respecting the varieties of rice, &c., remind me of my promise to give you the result of some of my experiments with rice straw and tailings, as manure to

Preparation.—The land is plowed, or dug with the hoe, as early in the winter as can be—if before Christmas, the stubble is turned under—if later, the stubble is burned off. The land is then covered with water during any warm changes of weather in winter, and ex-

rice land. Whenever they have been put upon my fields which had been making small crops, the effect has been satisfactory, and it has become a part of the system of my plantation.

In the month of November, 1839, I caused the stubble of two fields, one fifteen the other ten acres, to be listed four feet apart, and parallel with the drains; after which a furrow was made on each side with a large plow; the land unbroken in the centre was then drawn upon the beds with hoes—during the time of threshing, the straw and tailings were carried in a large flat, and each load was distributed between the beds of one acre, until the whole was covered. In this state they were left until the last week in June, when all the volunteer rice and grass was hoed down, and the beds reversed with plows and completed with hoes. The ditches and drains were then cleaned, and the fields were planted in peas, set in chops about a foot apart—the land was in good order, and the peas grew luxuriantly and made a fine crop—no volunteer rice, and as little grass as possible was allowed to go to seed.

In the first week of April, the vines were cut down, and the beds leveled with ploughs and hoes. This was very easily done, as the land was dry and remarkably loose—they were then trenched in the usual way thirteen inches from centre to centre—two bushels and twelve quarts of rice were planted to each acre, and the seed was well covered with earth. During the cultivation, the common plan was pursued, *i. e.* sprout, point, long, and lay-by flow—two hoeings between point and long-flow, two after, and one picking in the water. The crop was well saved, and produced within a fraction of seventy-three bushels to the acre. The straw and chaff of this rice was of a much brighter color than any other made upon the plantation, and the grain was of superior quality—1970 bushels of rough rice, made from land treated in the manner described, was pounded at the Georgetown steam mill last winter, and turned out—

Tierces, 600 lbs. net.

98,157 lbs. prime rice,
5 barrels middling, and
3 ditto small, with
193 ditto flour.

I cannot say what had been made upon these fields for the three or four previous years, but on reference to the plantation book, where an account had been kept, I found the average crop from them to have been thirty-three bushels and a fraction to the acre.

In some of my fields I have planted oats upon the beds, one and sometimes two rows, and these have, in some instances, been followed by potato slips, which succeed remarkably well; and it may be worthy of notice, keep fully as well, if not better than those made upon high land.

Although the rice thus made received as much work as is usually bestowed under the best cultivation, yet it was not bestowed from its seeming to require it, but from the fact of its being convenient to do so in turn with other fields of the plantation. I believe as much might have been made with two workings, as the grass had been so completely destroyed, and the land so thoroughly opened previously, that but little remained to be effected by the hoes. From subsequent observation, this land is much more easily cultivated, and with proper care some years must elapse before the volunteer rice and various grasses regain their standing.

Which of the three means employed in this plan is of the most importance, is to be determined—thoroughly breaking the soil, with the destruction of volunteer rice and grass seed, change of crop and culture, or the application of the rice-straw.

The work laid out in this manner ought not to be considered as altogether additional, but very much as given in advance, and at a time well suited to it—as when the rice planting season arrives, it will be found, as before remarked, to require very little more—after which its state of preparation for a good crop will far exceed any condition that could be brought about by the means at command during the winter season.

From the observations which I have made since my attention was first drawn to this matter, it appears that it would be profitable for such persons as plant weak or impoverished land, to subject one-fifth of the quantity annually planted, to this mode of treatment. From the increase which might be obtained in the first crop, a considerable return, if not all, would be made for the loss of a rice-crop on the land for one year, and the balance, if any, would be soon made up by the succeeding crops—besides the advantage gained from the increased fertility of the fields for some years; the enhanced value of their production from the superior quality of the grain, and the diminished labor during the cultivation of the succeeding crops.

Impoverished rice land is particularly susceptible of improvement from manure, as

posed to the frost when it is colder. In March the field is kept dry, the drains are cleansed, the upturned clods are broken, and the whole leveled with the harrow or hoe. The field is trenched in a direction across the drains, with a hoe made for the purpose, to open a trench of from 3 to 5 inches in width. The trenches or seed-furrows will be 13, 14, or 15 inches apart from centre to centre. In April, and until the middle of May, the rice is sown in these trenches, say 2¼ bushels of seed to the acre of 45,000 square feet.

Dry Culture.—The seed is covered lightly with a light board attached to a hoe-handle, and the field is inundated from 4 to 6 days, just long enough to swell the grain, and prepare it to sprout. As soon as it is sprouted, and the plants become perceptible, like so many needle-points above ground, the water is again put on for 4 or 6 days, according to the warmth of the atmosphere.

With water cover.—The more common practice now in the neighborhood of the writer, is not to cover the seed with earth, but to "clay"* it first, and after sowing, to flood the land forthwith, making the "sprout" and "point" water, one and the same. The method first mentioned is the best for early planting, though the labor required is greater. After the season is sufficiently advanced for the grain to germinate quickly, the "open" planting, less laborious, is equally certain, and by some persons is considered more certain to procure a regular and even stand. In all his early planting, *i. e.* until the middle of April, the writer allows three bushels of "clayed" seed to the acre. His trenches are fourteen inches apart from centre to centre, and five inches wide—the seed is scattered in the trench. He uses the water freely.

When the plant is five to six weeks old, the earth is stirred with the hoe; in ten days more the hoe is again used, and the "long-water" put on for two weeks or thereabout; deep the first four days, then gradually diminished, until the plant, somewhat recovered from the exhaustion occasioned by its rapid growth under water, stands up erect, and begins to throw out a new root; the water is then drawn.

may be often seen when fields are so situated as to receive the washings, by rain, of adjacent corn or potato fields annually manured with rice straw; and it is more lasting in its effect than might be supposed, as is proved by the marked difference in rice growing in fields where cattle-pens or feeding-troughs had been placed, often many years before.

With great regard,

EDWARD T. HERIOT.

* The process of "claying" rice, was introduced somewhere about the year 1826, by that judicious, practical man, and observant, experienced planter, Capt. John H. Allston, of Prince George Winyaw. It may be thus described—take two large tubs, say the two halves of a hogshead; fill one with water three-fourths full, add to it three or four baskets or more of good red clay; stir it well until the clay is dissolved and the water has taken up a sufficiency of it to feel clammy between the fingers. Pour off this water into the other tub, into which also measure as much seed rice as the tub will hold without wasting; stir it about until every grain has been wotted by the clayed water, taking care to pause every now and then for the purpose of skimming off the grass seed and light rice, which rise to the top and float on the surface. Then dip out the seed rice in sieves, allowing the water to drip back into the tub, and spread it in the barn to dry for the next day's sowing. Put more seed into the tub, and, when requisite, a fresh supply of clayed water, prepared as before, and so on.

The advantage of this preparation is that the grain, furnished on its exterior husk with a hairy fuz, retains about it (after being dried sufficiently to be handled in the sowing), particles of the tenacious clay; this, on the grain in the trenches being reached by the water with which the field is flooded immediately after sowing, makes it adhere to the earth, and of course prevents the seed from floating.

About eight days after, when the field is quite dry, a very deep hoeing is given, and the plant left undisturbed until it is prepared to form a joint; so soon as this is apparent, the field receives a light dressing with the narrowest hoe, and is "laid by," *i. e.* the "joint water" is put on to remain until the grain is matured, which is usually two months from this time. A few days before cutting, the water is run off, and the ditches washed out by the succeeding tide. The rice is cut with a sickle (task, one quarter of an acre to the hand, to cut and carry), and laid carefully across the stubble to cure, till the succeeding day. The dew off, it is then bound in sheaves of convenient size, just as wheat is, and packed in large floats, bearing five to seven acres, to be conveyed to the barn-yard. There it is stacked temporarily in small ricks, and when thoroughly cured, put away in large stacks made to contain from 200 to 400 bushels each when thrashed.

The thrashing is performed, almost universally, by a labor-saving machine; and the grain is cleaned and prepared for market by means of the pounding-mill.

*Water Culture; or "sixty days system."**—The land is flowed soon after harvest, for the purpose of sprouting the volunteer and scattered rice, until the winter sets in; it is then dried and kept dry. As early as practicable, the stubble is burned off. The ditches and drains are well cleansed at convenient times, and the land is turned late—a short time previous to planting. After this the preparation is as usual—the trenches are fourteen inches† apart from centre to centre, and are opened four inches wide. The seed, after being "clayed," is scattered in the trenches, allowing two bushels and twelve quarts to the acre. The water is put on so as to cover all the hills, and kept so until the sprout of the rice is green, and the blade well opened; or until the rice begins to float. The water is then slacked down, until the tops of the plants show out on the level land not regarding the low places. At this level it is held until the low places come out; it is then raised gradually every three or four days, until about six inches deep on the level parts of the field; at this it is held—observing to freshen the water every other night. As soon as the plant is sufficiently strong, the water is slacked down quite low, the hoe is dragged through between the trenches, and the hands pick out the long grass, weeds and rushes. The water is then forthwith returned up to the same mark as before. This working should be given about ten days before drying the field, as, soon after it is done, the plant puts out new roots, by which it is sustained and prevented from "checking" when the water is drawn. In drawing this water, the condition of the plant must guide the judgment. In ordinary seasons, the first planting may be dried in forty-five or sixty days, the last planting in forty to fifty days, whenever about that period the plant is putting out a new root, and always early enough to allow it

* Reduced to a system by Mr. Archibald Ligett, of Winyaw, who has politely furnished this synopsis. Mr. L. thinks, and very properly, that the practice of making rice with water altogether is a vicious one, and should be resorted to only where the land is in such bad order, that the labor of planting would not be compensated by any other.

† Various distances, from twelve to sixteen inches, have been tried by Mr. L., and he has decided upon fourteen inches as the best. The writer's experience confirms this decision.

thirty days' dry growth at least before forming the second joint. Seven days after the water is drawn, the field is hoed very deep, and, if the land is stiff, the sods are turned over, or it is "backsodded;" in a fortnight after, it is hoed again, if practicable. As soon as the plant has formed a second joint, and the hollow is perceptible, the last, or "joint-water" is put on to the same depth as before, and never raised until the rice begins to shoot forth the ear.*

VALUE OF THE RICE CROP.

The value of the rice crop, as derived from examining the actual net revenue of six different planters for ten years, from 1830 to 1840, has been equal to $140 per annum to the hand, that is, only taking into account the efficient force of the respective plantations.

The price of rice for the same time averaged as follows:

* The following note is found in 2d Vol. Ramsay's Hist. of S. Carolina, p. 206.

"South Carolina is indebted to Gideon Dupont, of St. James, Goose Creek, for the water culture of rice; he was an experienced planter, of discernment and sound judgment, who, after repeated trials ascertained its practicability.

"In the year 1783, he petitioned the Legislature of the State on the subject. A committee of five was appointed to confer with him. To them he freely communicated his method, relying on the generosity of the public. The treasury being then empty, the committee could only recommend granting him a patent. This he declined. His method is now in general use in river swamp lands, and has been the means of enriching thousands, though to this day his own family have reaped no benefit whatever from the communication of his discovery. Thomas Bee, now Federal Judge for the district of South Carolina, was one of the above committee; and on his authority these particulars are stated."

The last summer I instituted an inquiry to ascertain whether any of the family of Gideon Dupont were living, and could furnish me with an account of the water culture alluded to as the result of their ancestor's experience and observation. The inquiry was fruitless; none of the family of Gideon Dupont could be traced in this State.

I noticed the memorandum of the historian no farther until coming to Columbia. Here, through the kind attention of the Clerk of the House, I have obtained from the journals of the House of 1784, not only a confirmation of the fact that a committee was appointed to consider the subject, but also the report of the committee inclosed, of which the following is a copy.

In the Senate, March 18th, 1784.

The Committee to whom Mr. Gideon Dupont's petition was referred,

REPORT:

That they have considered the same, and are of opinion that every encouragement ought to be held out for the improvement in agriculture, and the staple commodities of this State.

Mr. Dupont intends to make two experiments the ensuing crop to prove the practicability of his undertaking, viz., one in River Swamp, at the plantation of Col. Morton Wilkinson, and the other in Black Swamp, at the plantation of Mr. John Deas.

Your Committee therefore recommend that Col. Morton Wilkinson, Roger P. Saunders, Esq., and Mr. John Deas, be appointed commissioners to attend the said experiments, and if they should be carried into effect, and will be of general utility, and shall certify the same under their hands and seals, to the General Assembly, that then the said Mr. Dupont be entitled to a liberal reward.

From the journals of the succeeding year, it does not appear that this commission ever reported on the subject. It may be presumed that Mr. Dupont's method of cultivating rice without the use of the hoe, and with water only, did not, upon farther test, prove to be of as great general utility as he himself supposed. In new land, just cleared of wood and drained, a good crop of rice can be made *the first year* without the use of the hoe.* But under no other circumstances that I am aware of, except, perhaps, after a good fallow, which, if properly treated, restores the soil almost to its primitive purity.

* The writer has made such crops repeatedly, between the years 1828 and 1836, when clearing new land, with a comparatively small laboring force.

In 1830	$2 5-8	In 1835	$3 1-4
In 1831	2 3-8	In 1836	3 7-16
In 1832	2 13-16	In 1837	3 11-16
In 1833	2 5-8	In 1838	4 1-17
In 1834	3 3-16	In 1839	2 1-2

being an average for that time of $3 1-8.

During the past season, 1842, the price was low, owing partly to the want of demand for rough rice, which caused an undue quantity of clean rice to be forced upon the market at the same time—partly to the increased production arising from a favorable harvest—but principally to the low price of breadstuffs generally, and the depressed state of trade all over the world, and the low standard value affixed to almost everything, by a return to a bank issue, based upon a specie currency—the only safe and permanent basis.

To those planters somewhat in debt, who have been met in the full career of habitual expenditure, by the late and present low prices of produce, they have proved seriously embarrassing.

Low prices, if they continue permanent, so as to effect a corresponding graduation in price of all the usual objects of expenditure, are doubtless favorable to the lasting prosperity of the country. If this be true, our planters will not complain. The sooner they and their society can accommodate themselves to the new condition of things, *i. e.* buy less, and endeavor to make more for sale, the sooner will those whose business it is to supply them, graduate their prices to the reduced standard—and their renewed prosperity, if it be less sudden and ostentatious, will not be the less sure and permanent for that; nor the less gratefully acknowledged.

Drill Plow.—Somewhere about the year 1812, the late Dr. Robert Nesbit, returning from a visit to his native country, Scotland, introduced an implement in the economy of rice-planting which excited no little interest among the planters in his neigborhood. It was called the Drill Plow. Its offices and uses were to open the trenches and deposit the seed, which it was found to do very well when managed with care to the saving of so much labor.

The drill plow was borne by a carriage on two wheels, very much resembling in size and height an ordinary dray, and was drawn by one horse between shafts. It consisted, generally, of a long box parallel with the axle and above it, into which the given quantity of seed grain was placed and locked up. From this box the grain was distributed by means of regulators into and through tin tubes, descending nearly to the earth, at the required distance from each other for planting. These tubes or cylinders were guided in their descent, and sustained in their respective positions by rods of iron fixed firmly into the frame, but so as to yield to an obstacle when pressed hard against. The rods on their part were each furnished at bottom with a sort of shoe, protruding a little beyond the tube for the purpose of marking and opening the trench into which the seed was to be conveyed by its corresponding tube. Although a little too complicated, it was, upon the whole, a complete and interesting labor-saving machine. Drawn by a good horse, over ground in high tilth, and managed by a skilful and judicious hand, the drill plow would trench seed from eight to twelve acres of ground in the day, in pro-

portion nearly as it was furnished, with a less or greater number of trenching shoes and tubes. It was used successfully by the importer, and, more or less, by several planters on the Waccamaw and Pee Dee, up to the year of his death (1821), since which time it has been entirely abandoned. This result is supposed to be owing not to the fact that the plow was not found to be highly useful, so much as to this, that to use it successfully, it required more minute attention and judgment than could be calculated on among the field laborers of that day. The writer is inclined to the opinion that the drill plow will again be introduced, and successfully used in rice-planting.* Indeed, he has himself ordered the importation of an improved one from Scotland, to be accompanied by a laborer who is familiar with its use. One of these plows, used by the importer, having four tubes, would, on long beds, trench and sow ten acres in a day. Another furnished with six tubes, could accomplish fifteen acres under like circumstances, in the same time.

A simple trenching plow, furnished with coulters for opening two or three trenches at a time, has been used with advantage on light soils, but it has not been generally adopted.

Thrashing Mill.—The same gentleman, Dr. Nesbit, who was as much distinguished by his general intelligence and scientific ingenuity, as he was noted for skill and success in the practice of his profession, imported and used upon his plantation in the year 1811, the Scotch thrashing mill. His motive power was the wind. When the wind was fresh and the weather fair, this machine would thrash and winnow five hundred bushels in a day.

Among the various attempts of the several inventors in this country to improve upon the wheat thrasher so as to make it available for rice, none met with permanent success until the year 1830, when was produced a machine, the beaters of which were shod with sheet iron and serrated with iron wire.

The principle to which is owing the superiority of this invention, is, that, while revolving with increased rapidity (600 to 800 the minute), by means of the teeth with which the beaters are furnished, it combs off the grain from the numerous footstalks of which the ear of rice is composed. The invention, which is now in very general use, yielding, when worked by animal power, from two to three hundred bushels per day, and when propelled by steam 450 to 700 bushels each, is due to the ingenuity and mechanism of Calvin Emmons, of New York.† To the liberal enterprise and public spirit of General

* Since writing the above, it is ascertained that Mr. Francis M. Weston, of Waccamaw, who has just returned from England, has ordered for importation an improved drill plow, which, on its arrival in this country, will be left some time at the Agricultural Repository of J. D. Legare, for the inspection of planters.

† The following is a list of patents obtained by citizens of South Carolina, together with the Emmons of New York, for their respective inventions or improvements of a *Thrashing Machine*. There are no models for these to be found, and only three are illustrated by drawings. The originals were doubtless destroyed by the fire of the 15th Dec., 1836; and those marked thus † have not been restored:

†Benjamin S. Hort, Georgetown, S. C.	patent	21st Feb., 1812
†Elias B. Hort, Charleston, S. C.	"	18th " 1828
†Calvin Emmons, New York	"	17th April, 1828
†Jehiel Butts, Georgetown, S. C.	"	20th May, 1830
Calvin Emmons	"	27th July, 1829
William Emmons	"	7th Feb., 1831
William Mathews, Charleston, S. C.	"	27th Aug., 1836

James Hamilton are the planters of rice indebted for the first thorough test of the powers of this machine, and for the subsequent early notoriety of its successful operation.*

Milling.—Although it is recorded that planters early in the 18th century cleaned their rice by mills worked by horses or oxen; yet this could not have been the case generally, till about the middle of that century. Even toward the period of the war, hand-mortars were still extensively used.

The method was, that each male laborer had three pecks of rough rice in a mortar, and each female two pecks, to pound before day or sun-rise; and the same at night, after finishing the ordinary task in the field. The pounding was done in wooden mortars, made of the common pitch pine, to contain a bushel or less; the pestle was made

Here follows a description by Mr. Emmons, of his machine of 1831, with his improvements thereon.

New York, 16th Sept., 1843.

To R. F. W. Allston, Esq.

Dear Sir:—Your letter of the 3d August is received—my rice-thrasher, when I first introduced it into your State in the winter of 1830-31, was constructed as follows, viz.: a rectangular frame, across and near the one end of which was placed, in suitable boxes, an iron shaft, on which shaft were hung circular heads, or wheels, to the periphery of which circular heads, and parallel with the said shaft, were attached, by joints or hinges, six-toothed beaters, the length of which beaters being nearly equal to the width of the frame in the clear. The teeth of every second beater ranging alternately with the spaces between the teeth of the others; the teeth were made of 5-16ths iron rod, one-and-a-half inches long, and set in the beaters 5-8ths of an inch apart from centre to centre of each tooth. This centrifugal force causing the said toothed beaters, when revolving, to extend themselves as far from the axis as the joints by which they are secured will permit, and thus when in motion forming a cylinder.

Underneath the beaters was placed a circular frame or bed, formed of slats parallel with the axis of the cylinder, the front edge of which frame, where the grain is received, being raised nearly to the height of the axis of the cylinder; directly in front of which is placed a pair of feeding rollers, to which the sheaf-rice was conveyed by a revolving feeding-apron, the bands of the sheaves being previously cut.

The required speed of a cylinder of 18 inches diameter was found to be about 750 to 800 revolutions per minute—much over that speed would break the rice, or much under would not thrash so perfectly clean. They feed at about 60 feet per minute.

The principal improvements and alterations which I subsequently adopted, are the using of cast-steel teeth two inches long, of 3-8ths rod, flattened and hardened at the outer ends (iron teeth having too rapidly worn away by the action of the rice upon them), and steel plates in the concave bed, which plates project 3-4ths of an inch above the surface of the bed, and incline towards the feeding rollers, about 30 degrees from the radius; and which I found to protect the bed from too rapidly wearing as before, and to aid in separating the foot stalk.

Also as the feeding apron was found to wear out too rapidly by the roughness of the rice, an inclined feeding-board was substituted.

By steam power the machines have each thrashed 700 bushels per day, though ordinarily from 450 to 500 bushels per day each, and by horse power, as you well know, much less.

I was first induced to introduce the machine in the rice-planting districts, by the urgent solicitation of General James Hamilton, who had seen a model or hand machine an agent of mine had in Savannah, Georgia, and which General Hamilton had taken over to his plantation near that city, and with the operation of which he was so well pleased that he at once sent me a bale of rice in the sheaf, that I might further experiment with it here; and wrote me, offering every facility for trying the experiment by animal power on his plantation, if I would bring out a machine and driving geer the following fall or winter, to which I acceded; and after the erection of which machine, General Hamilton invited the neighboring planters to witness the experiment, the result of which proved satisfactory. My patent is dated 27th July, 1829.

Very respectfully yours,
CALVIN EMMONS,
86 White street, New York.

* See in the Drawing Department of the United States Patent Office an Illustration of Mr. Emmons' patent, dated 27th of July, 1829.

of light-wood or the heart of pine seasoned; the process was conducted on the floor of a large barn prepared for the purpose. The rough rice was sometimes ground by being passed between wooden blocks twenty inches in diameter by six inches thick worked by hand. The mills early in use, and propelled by animal power, were the pecker-machine, so called from the striking resemblance of the pestle when in action, to the bill of the woodpecker, and the cog-mill, both of which have been entirely superseded by the improved pounding mill, propelled by water or steam.

Between the years 1780 and 1790, the first water-mill was erected by Mr. Lucas, the elder, to whom solely the credit of the invention is understood to be due.

It is to be regretted that the family of Mr. Lucas have not favored us with more full and accurate notes of their ancestor's early ingenuity and skill as a millwright. His son Jonathan, inheriting the father's mechanical turn and skill, constructed on Cooper river in 1801, the first toll-mill for cleaning rice. He yielded at length to the invitations of the British government, and transported his improvements to England, where he himself passed the remainder of his days. His son, Jonathan, now living, shipped in 1823 the first load of rough rice which was exported from this country.

The first water-mill built by Mr. Lucas, was in the year 1787, for Mr. Bowman, on a reserve at his Peach Island plantation, on the river Santee. The next, on the same river, was on the reserve at Washo plantation, for Mrs. Middleton, afterwards Mrs. Gen. T. Pinckney.

About the same time, or soon after, a water-mill was put up on a reserve on Winyaw bay, for Gen. Peter Horry. Also for Col. William Alston, on the reserve at his Fairfield plantation on the river Waccamaw.

In the year 1791–2, Mr. Lucas built on Santee the first tide-mill, for Mr. Andrew Johnston, on his plantation called Millbrook.

In a year or two after, the same indefatigable and ingenious mechanic erected on Cooper river an improved tide-mill, being furnished with rolling screen, elevators, packers, etc., at the plantation of Mr. Henry Laurens, called Mepkin.*

* The first toll-mill built in this country was "Middleburg Mill," on Copper river, which was finished in 1801, by J. Lucas, the son.

The first Brushing Screen used, was put into that mill in 1803.

The patent granted Mr. Jonathan Lucas by the British Government, expired three or four years ago. One of the most important advantages secured to Mr. Lucas, was getting the duty on paddy reduced in England to 2s. 6d. per bushel.

Steam was first applied to rice mills in the year 1817, by Mr. Lucas and Mr. Norton.

The first cargo of paddy was shipped to England in 1823, by J. Lucas, jun. In that year, the export of rice from this State was equal to 90,000 barrels, while in 1843 it had reached 130,000 barrels.

Among the numerous patents recorded at Washington for hulling grain, wheat and rice, the following are noted as being associated with the names of citizens of South Carolina, viz.:

Winnowing Screen Pendulum—Lewis Dupre, South Carolina, 1st April, 1807.
Hulling and cleaning rice—Jonathan Lucas, jun., 12th July, 1808.
Hulling and pounding husks—Jacob Read, S. C., 9th June, 1809.
Hulling rice and polishing—Jonathan Lucas, jun., 6th November, 1819.
Hulling rice by steam—John L. Norton, 16th December, 1823.
Hulling rice—John Ravenel, 17th May, 1828.
Hulling rice—Asa Nourse, South Carolina, 19th July, 1828.
Hulling rice—Asa Nourse, South Carolina, 3d April, 1829.

Upon these, the mills erected at a later day have been improvements in construction chiefly. Some substantial improvements are said to have been introduced recently by David Kidd, a machinist from Scotland, of very high character for ingenuity and practical ability. He is himself one of the best millers, practically, in the State.

In the preparation of rice, much depends upon the grinding of the rough. In Northumberland, England, are the best quarries of stone for this purpose. In this process, as in that of brushing and polishing the grain after pounding, there has been latterly a decided improvement, owing mainly to the observation and genius of the millwright just named.

At present almost every planter of four hundred acres and upward, is provided with a tide-water or steam-pounding mill for preparing his own crops for market.

There are also a number of toll-mills in the State, nearly sufficient for preparing all the rough rice which is not pounded at the plantations.

In Georgetown, beside various tide-mills on the neighboring plantations, which pound on toll more or less, there is a very good steam-mill owned by Mr. Benjamin King.

To 3,000 bushels of fair rough rice this mill will yield of prime rice for market	*Tierces* 144	600 *lbs. net.* 300 lbs.
Of middling	7	
Of small rice	6	
Of flour	320	bushels.*

Hulling rice and separating grain—Peter Broughton, South Carolina, 5th August, 1831.

The models and plans illustrating these inventions respectively, were doubtless destroyed by the fire of 1836, and have not been since restored.

There is a mill on Savannah river (Mr. Gibbon's) carrying eleven pestles, which, as I learned from himself, can pound 14 barrels the tide. The pestles are shod with cast iron about one foot in length, and secured to the wood by a long bolt driven from the bottom, and fastened by a screw and nut. The mortars are of cast iron, weighing 600 lbs., cast by Allaire, of New York, and cost $30. They are constructed to contain five bushels of rough.

* Georgetown, Nov. 16th, 1843.

To Col. R. F. W. Allston,

Sir:—I have received your communication, requesting information in relation to the preparation of rough rice for market, and have to say, that three thousand bushels fair quality, have turned out at the steam rice mill here, one hundred and forty-four and a half barrels prime rice, and seven barrels middling, and six barrels small rice, and three hundred and twenty bushels flour. The time of pounding, with twenty pestles, sixty hours.

I would remark, that rice thrashed on floors with flails, turns out much better than mill thrashed.

Your obedient servant,
BENJAMIN KING.

Charleston, 21st Nov., 1843.

To Col. R. F. W. Allston,

Dear Sir:—In reply to your favor of 14th ult., I beg to say that the following is, to the best of my belief, an accurate statement of the turn-out from my mill of 2,000 bushels of what I consider prime rough rice:

To your first inquiry—

1. In what time will this quantity be preparing? One day.
2. How many tierces weighing 600 lbs. net? 105.
3. How many of second quality? None.
4. How many of middling rice? Two barrels.
5. How many bushels of small rice? Twenty bushels.
6. How many bushels of rice flour? Two hundred and fifty.

With great respect, I remain your obd't servant,
A. W. CHISOLM.

In Charleston and its vicinity there are numerous tide-mills ar several steam-mills; the chief and most successful of the latter a those of Mr. Chisolm, Mr. Hume, and Mr. Lucas.*

P. S.—The above statement is made from rough rice thrashed with the flail. Ri done by a thrashing mill would take from one bushel to one and a half more—owi to the quantity of straw and foot stalk not being taken out properly before sent to t mill. A. W. C.

Results of three different parcels pounded at Chisolm's Mill, 1843.

1. 3,000 bushels of rough rice from Waccamaw, thrashed *by mill*, made
   142 barrels of whole rice of 600 net.
   3 barrels middling.
   3 barrels small.
   330 bushels flour.
2. 3,000 bushels of rough rice from Sandy Island, thrashed *by flail*. made
   155 barrels whole rice of 600 net.
   3 barrels middling.
   3 barrels small.
   330 bushels flour.
3. 3,512 bushels of rough rice, from Pon Pon, thrashed *by machine*, turned out
   In whole rice, 164 tierces 600 lbs. net.
   In middling, 4
   In small, 3
   In flour, 375 bushels.

From Thomas Bilby.

New York Rice Mill, Oct. 12th, 1843.

I have made sundry trials to ascertain the several products of rough rice or paddy few of which I give below. In 1835 I made three trials, as follows:

1,000 bushels paddy, from Savannah, produced
19,995 lbs. of best quality.
10,145 " of second quality.
853 " of small rice, or chitts.
8,140 " of flour or douse.

1,000 bushels paddy, from Charleston, produced
16,078 lbs. of best head rice.
596 " of best prime.
9,190 " of good to fair.
3,243 " of broken.
570 " of chitts, or small rice.
5,210 " of flour or douse.

1,000 bushels paddy, from Wilmington, produced
18,015 lbs. of best quality.
9,989 " of second quality.
1,307 " of small rice.
5,760 " of flour or douse.

The above were trials of different modes of screening, so as to ascertain whi would produce the most money; all the trials that I have made since the above, I ha not kept any of the small and douse, and I find that every year's rice differs in its p portions as to prime and broken, as also to the whole product. This year it h averaged thirty pounds to the bushel, and about one-tenth broken; last year the tu out was something less.

From J. P. Deveaux, Napier's Mills.

Charleston, 4th Nov., 1843

Our mill differs from the pestle mill; we clean by wire cards; we have four of t rubbers in operation, which clean an average of 72 barrels in twenty-four hours. answer to your interrogatories, I will give you an exact account of some rice boug cleaned, and sold by us—that is, through our factors. 1,291 bushels rough rice, fr the plantation of Mr. Thomas Lowndes, formerly Mr. Charles Rowand's, in St. Pau parish, which yielded 41,075 lbs. merchantable rice, at 600 lbs. per barrel, is 68⅓ barre or 19 bushels to the barrel, or 39,150 lbs. whole, 1,925 lbs. middling, 990 lbs. small, 1 bushels flour. The above was cleaned in about twenty-three hours. The above par of rice was purchased 1st December, 1840, at 84 cents per bushel, and was sold at $ on the 10th December. The next parcel that I am able to inform you accurately up is 1,952 bushels rough rice, from the plantation of Mr. Henry Deas, which yield 56,270 lbs. whole, 240 lbs. middling, 600 lbs. small, and 147 bushels flour. The abo was purchased 2d November, 1841, at 90 cents per bushel, and sold at $3 7-16ths, a

* Since the above was published, it is ascertained that Mr. Nowell has applied steam engine to his mill.

Mr. Lucas has not favored me with a reply to my queries in relation to the operations of his mill. Nor has Mr. Hume.

From accounts of the operations of Mr. Chisolm's mill, I infer that 3,000 bushels of fair rough rice will yield of prime rice for market	*Tierces* 600 *net.*	148	300 lbs.
Of middling		3	
Of small		3	
Of flour		330	bushels.

In the city of New York, owing to the public spirit and enterprise of Colonel Benjamin F. Hunt, there has been for some years in operation a very good steam-mill, which receives rice on toll, and consumes, besides, some 50,000 bushels of rough on its own account.

As the other toll-mills from which I have heard, have furnished results based upon the preparation of South Carolina rice alone, I have thought proper to use only Mr. Bilby's experiment with the Charleston rice.

To 3,000 bushels of rough rice, the New York mills yield of prime rice	*Tierces* 600 *lbs.*	82	422		
Of good to fair rice		45	570	*bbls.*	*lbs.*
Of broken rice (middling?)		16	129	144	521
Of small rice or chits (26.31 bushels)				2	510
Of flour or douse (381.21 bushels)				15,630	lbs.

In the mill erected by Mr. Napier, on Cooper river, "*wire cards*" are used instead of pestles for cleaning the grain. This mode of preparing rice imparts a slightly bluish tinge to the grain, though it is supposed to keep longer than rice prepared in the ordinary way. Rice thus prepared will not command as high a price per cwt. as that from the pestle of similar quality, but it is said to be the interest of the planter to patronize the "cards," inasmuch as the yield in whole rice from a given quantity of rough is invariably greater, the offal being less. In the year 1842-3, this mill prepared seven thousand barrels, and seems to have given satisfaction to patrons.

The trial of Mr. Deas' rice, from Santee, is selected as the fair test of this mill, 1,950 bushels. At the same rate 3,000 bushels of prime rough rice will yield in—

	Tierces 600 *lbs.*	
Prime rice for market	144	
In middling rice	368.85	lbs.
In small rice	1,323.23	"
In flour	296	bushels.

took 20¼ bushels to the barrel. I have given you above the result of two parcels, one from Santee, and one from St. Paul's parish. I should like to furnish you particulars of the results of rice farther south; not being able to give you the number of pounds, I will give you the result in barrels of rice from Georgia; say 5,248 bushels rice, received 12th November, 1842, from the plantation of Dr. Daniel, near Savannah, which yielded 250 barrels whole, 12 middling, 11 small, and about 400 bushels of flour. This day we have just finished a parcel of 5,375 bushels from the same plantation, which resulted in 219½ barrels whole, 38 middling, 10½ small, and about 400 bushels flour; you will perceive that the above parcels took a little over 20 bushels to the barrel. The last parcel was very much broken in thrashing, which was done by machinery, which will account to you for the unusual quantity of middling rice; we did not come up to our average of 72 barrels per day on this last parcel, as the machines were new, and required some little time to work to advantage; but I think we may safely calculate upon cleaning three barrels per hour to the four machines.

Recently an ingenious method of lifting the pestles has been invented by Mr. S. K. Williams, of the city of Charleston, to be used in substitution of the lever ("lifter") described in Mr. Lucas' mill. One advantage of this invention is said to be the greater rapidity with which the pestles, themselves lighter, may be driven without interfering or "slamming." Another, that a system of pestles and mortars may be more compactly arranged in circular form, and may be moved by a less power.

The invention is called "The Spiral Shaft Rice Mill." As it has never yet been actually tested, nothing more can be said of it here.

Process of Preparation.—The stones which are used for grinding rice should be 5 to 6 feet two inches diameter, and 18 inches thick at the centre. There is said to be a quarry in Northumberland, affording stones of such excellent substance, that they will grind rough rice enough for packing 1,000 barrels without being taken up.

The whole process of preparation may be described generally as follows. From a shed or convenient store-room attached to the mill-house, the rough rice is taken, by means of elevators (*i. e.* a system of small tin buckets attached to a long revolving band of leather), up to the highest apartment in the building, to be passed through a sand-screen revolving nearly horizontally, which, in sifting out the grit and small grain rice, separates also all foreign bodies, and such heads of rice as were not duly thrashed.

From the sand-screen the sifted rough of large size is conveyed directly to the stones on the same floor, where the husk is broken and ground off, thence to a wind-fan below, where the chaff is separated and blown off. The grain is now deposited in a long bin, placed over the pestle-shaft, and corresponding in length with it, whence the ground rice is delivered by wooden conductors into the mortars on the ground floor—ten, twelve, fourteen, or twenty-four in number, as the power applied may justify.* These mortars, improved by Mr. Kidd's design, are constructed beautifully of four pieces of the heart of pine, seasoned. They are in figure a little more than a semi-ellipsoid, and are made to contain four and a half bushels of ground rice each.

The pestles, also constructed of the heart of pine, and corresponding in number and position with the mortars, are sheathed at foot with sheet iron, partially perforated in many places from within by some blunt instrument, so as to resemble, on a very coarse scale, the rough surface of a grater. They are intended to weigh each 240 to 280 lbs. or thereabout, are lifted by levers six feet long attached (2 feet out) to the large pestle-shaft, and make from forty-four to forty-eight strokes in a minute. A mortar of rice is disposed of, or sufficiently pounded in one hour and forty minutes to two hours. The grain thus pounded is again elevated to the upper floor, to be passed through a long horizontal rolling-screen, slightly depressed at one end, where by means of a system of wire-sieves, grading coarser and coarser towards the lower end, are separated, first the flour, second the "small rice" (the eyes and smaller particle of the broken grains), third the "middling rice," or the smaller and the half-broken grains,

* It is understood that Mr. Lucas' mill drives 28 pestles, and Mr. Chisolm's 30.

fourth and last the "prime rice," the larger and chiefly unbroken grains, which fall through the largest wire, and forthwith descend to the "polishing" or "brushing screen" below, whence it descends through a fan into the barrel on the first floor, where it is packed, and the preparation is completed.* The head rice, or largest grains of all, together with the rough, unbroken by the stones, passes off at the lower end of the screen, to be pounded over.

The "*brushing screen*" consists of a vertical cylinder or drum, two feet in diameter, by from four and a half to six feet in height, to the surface of which are attached, vertically, shreds of sheep-skin closely packed; this drum is made to revolve with great velocity within, and lightly brushing a cylindrical frame of iron wire made into a fine sieve. In passing down spirally between this clothed drum and the exterior cylindrical wire-sieve, the grains are relieved of the particles of flour which still adhere to them, and which are brushed off by the wool and forced out through the meshes of the wire. The rice thus brushed clean and polished against the wire, is packed in barrels constructed of pine staves to contain six cwt. net. The middling and small rice are passed through a fan which blows off from them the flour into an apartment kept for that purpose. They are packed separately, and used as provisions for the laborers on the plantation during the warm months, chiefly at Christmas holidays and throughout harvest, and habitually by the families of both the proprietor and his overseer.

Rice being so completely protected by a silicious husk, and thus so much less liable to damage from transportation in the rough than when cleaned, owing too, to the superior manner in which clean rice can be presented in the European markets fresh from the screen, capitalists concerned in this trade have caused mills, propelled by steam, to be erected on Mr. Lucas' plan, at various ports in England, and on the continent, at which upward of 400,000 bushels of rice from this State are annually prepared—besides a quantity of paddy from the East Indies, and from other quarters.

To encourage the construction of such machinery in Great Britain, and to protect the capital invested in the mills, the importation of rough rice rather than clean, is encouraged in that kingdom by a discriminating duty in favor of the former, equal to four dollars per barrel of the latter.

In England there are in operation four mills—two in London, and two in Liverpool, consuming each about 75,000 bushels of rough annually. When the price of Carolina rice ranges high, these mills are to a great extent employed in manufacturing paddy from the East Indies.

The mill in Scotland has been converted to another purpose.

In Denmark, at Copenhagen, a mill has been in operation about six years; consumption about 90,000 bushels of rough.

At Bremen there is a mill intended to prepare either wheat or rice, according to the state of the markets.

At Flensburgh, also, there is a mill constructed for both wheat and rice, capable of manufacturing 20,000 bushels of rough rice.

* Mr. Chisolm has constructed in his mill a second screen for polishing, through which the rice from the brushing screen is passed on its way down to the barrel.

In Holland, at Amsterdam, a mill has been some years in operation which requires from 60 to 80,000 bushels of rough rice annually.

In Portugal, at Lisbon, there is a small mill which prepares either wheat or rice, requiring about 10,000 bushels of Carolina annually.

In France, at Bordeaux, a mill has but recently been put in operation—for it, in the year 1842, were shipped about 60,000 bushels of Carolina rough.

A mill, constructed after Mr. Napier's plan, has been erected by the "Northampton Rice Company" at Maranham, in South America, where it is in successful operation. It is supplied with paddy grown in the neighborhood.

The articles received from the several countries above named, as well as from Cuba, may here be mentioned.

From Denmark and Holland, as indeed from all the other countries (England and France excepted), little is received in the shape of return cargoes—the purchases of both rough and clean rice being for the most part paid for by bills of exchange on London.

From Bremen were once received glass-ware, bottles, bagging, hams, paving-stones, &c., but the United States tariff of duties has put a stop to these importations.

From Portugal the returns are fruit and wines principally.

From France the articles at present received are silks, wines, and brandy. This trade also has been affected by the tariff.

From England are imported in return, iron, hardware, manufactures of cotton, woolen and linen, salt, coal, &c.

From Cuba, the returns are sugar, molasses, coffee, and fruit.

The consumption of rice in Cuba is estimated at 15,000 barrels for the north side, and 2,000 for the south side of the island.*

Exports.—John Archdale, Governor of Carolina in 1694–5, who gave more general satisfaction to all parties than any other under the proprietary rule, was a Quaker—a very pious, mild man. He succeeded in the government Landgrave Smith, and was in turn succeeded by Joseph Blake. He returned to England in the year 1696. In the year 1707 was printed for him in London a pamphlet, which, from internal evidence, appears to have been written some two or three years anterior. In this pamphlet he says: "Notwithstanding all the discouragements it, the trade of the colony, has met withal,

* The following, together with much other interesting and useful information for the foregoing memoir, has been furnished by the intelligent and obliging gentlemen constituting the firm of *Robertson & Blacklock*, of the city of Charleston, factors.

Rice is consumed in England and France as an article of luxury, except a small quantity annually made up into ornaments in both countries, consisting principally of rice paper, beads, clock cases, and chimney ornaments. In the north of Europe, it is used as an article of food, but cannot be afforded at a sufficiently low rate to be substituted for potatoes or grain grown upon the spot. In the time of war, its value is appreciated; it has been found to contain the greatest quantity of nutriment in the smallest compass, portable, and least liable to damage, and was consequently much used by the British troops in the lengthy Peninsular war.

In Cuba, it is used as a breadstuff in preference to any other kind of food. The consumption of Carolina rice begins, however, to be much interfered with by the rice grown in and exported from Spain, as well as the rice now grown in the island of Cuba itself; also a very good quality of rice is now imported from Campeachy. The present duty on Carolina rice in Cuba is $2.25 per 100 lbs., while the duty on that from Spain is almost nominal. From Campeachy the duty may be considered one-third less, as it is brought in Spanish vessels, which enjoy that discriminating advantage in favor of their flag. The high duty on rice from this country also operates very much against its consumption.

which are many, yet *seventeen* ships this year came laden from Carolina with *rice*, skins, pitch, tar, &c., in the Virginia fleet, besides several straggling ones."* From this time to the year 1720, during the greater part of which time the coast was infested by fleets of piratical vessels under command of the notorious Steed Bonnett, and others, there is extant no records of the exports of the province.

In a statement intended for the House of Commons, drawn up about the commencement of the war with France, by the merchants of London concerned in the rice trade, and published by Governor Glen in his "Description of South Carolina," 1761, the exports of rice from Carolina are thus given:

From 1720 to 1729 inclusive..... 264,788 barrels =44,081 tons.†
" 1730 to 1739 " ..... 419,525 " =99,905 tons.‡

From another source is obtained the following statement:

EXPORTS OF RICE FROM THE PORT OF CHARLESTON, SOUTH CAROLINA.

From 1724 to 1725	Nov. to Nov.		Casks	17,734
" 1725 to 1726	" "			23,031
" 1726 to 1727	" "			26,884
" 1727 to 1728	" "			29,905
" 1728 to 1729	" "		Barrels	32,384
" 1729 to 1730	" "			41,722
" 1730 to 1731	" "			39,487
" 1731 to 1732	" "			37,068
" 1732 to 1733	" "			50,726
" 1733 to 1734	" "			30,323
" 1734 to 1735	" "			45,317
" " "	" "		Bags	1,038

EXPORTS FROM CHARLESTON, SOUTH CAROLINA.§

		Barrels.	Bags.	Price at last-mentioned period.
From 1735 to 1736	Nov. to Nov.	52,349	1,554	
" 1736 to 1737	" "	42,619	519	£3 0s. 0d.
" 1737 to 1738	" "	34,324	..	..
" 1738 to 1739	" "	67,117	..	2 0s. 0d.
" 1739 to 1740	" "	91,110	..	2 5s. 0d.
" 1740 to 1741	" "	80,040	2,137	2 15s. 0d.
" 1741 to 1742	" "	46,196	..	..
" 1742 to 1743	" "	73,416	..	2 0s. 0d.
" 1743 to 1744	" "	80,788	..	1 5s. 0d.
" 1744 to 1745	" "	59,627	..	0 17s. 6d.
" 1745 to 1746	" "	54,101	..	1 0s. 0d.
" 1746 to 1747	" "	54,146	..	2 6s. 0d.
" 1747 to 1748	" "	55,133	..	2 15s. 0d.
" 1748 to 1749	" "	41,034	..	..
" 1749 to 1750	" "	48,011	595	..
" 1750 to 1751	" "	61,522	223	1 17s. 0d.
" 1751 to 1752	" "	78,360	186	3 10s. 0d.
" 1752 to 1753	" "	35,522	..	2 5s. 0d.
" 1753 to 1754	" "	88,659	..	2 10s. 0d.
" 1754 to 1755	" "	96,778	..	2 0s. 0d.
" 1758 to 1759	" "	51,718	..	..
" 1759 to 1760	" "	60,789	44	2 5s. 0d.
" 1760 to 1761	" Oct. 10	101,359	74	1 17s. 6d.
" 1761 to 1762	" Nov.	79,642	..	1 10s. 0d.
" 1762 to 1763	" "	101,059	44	2 10s. 0d.
" 1763 to 1764	" "	101,842	..	..
" 1764 to 1765	" Sept. 14	107,292	..	2 10s. 0d.
" 1768 to 1769	From 10th October to 25th August.	116,715	..	3 5s. 0d.
" 1770 to 1771	From 1st Nov. to 10th Oct.	130,500	..	..

* 2 Car. Col. p. 97. †The weight of the barrel would seem to have been about 336 lbs.
‡ The weight of the barrel now 400 lbs. § S. Carolina Gazette.

As follows:	Barrels.	
To Great Britain	73,325	
To Portugal	14,439	
To Spain	1,760	
To Italy	222	
To Foreign West India islands	975	
To British " " "	30,305	
To ports on this continent	9,665	
In the year 1770, from the colonies	150,529	—$1,530,000.*

From the port of Charleston, South Carolina, from 1772 to 1773, from 1st Nov. to 2d Aug.	Barrels. 112,469	Price at last mentioned period. £3 10s. 0d.
From 1773 to 1774, from 12th Nov. to 7th Nov.	Barrels. 118,482	
From Beaufort, same time	3,630	
From Georgetown	2,964	
Crop of 1773 exported.....Total	125,076	

EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES.†

Years.	Tierces.	Value on Ship-board.	Years.	Tierces.	Value on Ship-board.
1791	96,980	....	1817	79,296	$2,378,001
1792	141,762	....	1818	86,181	3,962,697
1793	134,611	....	1819	76,523	2,142,644
1794	116,469	....	1820	71,663	1,714,923
1795	138,526	....	1821	88,221	1,494,923
1796	131,039	....	1822	87,089	1,553,482
1797	60,111	....	1823	101,365	1,820,985
1798	125,243	....	1824	113,299	1,582,992
1799	110,599	....	1825	97,015	1,925,245
1800	112,056	....	1826	111,063	1,917,445
1801	94,866	....	1827	133,518	2,343,908
1802	79,822	....	1828	175,019	2,620,696
1803	81,838	$2,455,000	1829	171,636	2,514,370
1804	78,385	2,350,000	1830	130,697	1,986,824
1805	56,830	1,705,000	1831	116,517	2,016,267
1806	102,627	2,617,000	1832	120,327	2,152,631
1807	94,692	2,367,000	1833	144,166	2,774,418
1808‡	9,228	221,000	1834	121,886	2,122,272
1809	116,901	2,104,000	1835	110,851	2,210,331
1810	131,341	2,626,000	1836	112,963	2,548,750
1811	119,356	2,387,000	1837	106,084	2,309,279
1812§	77,190	1,544,000	1838	71,048	1,721,819
1813	120,843	3,021,000	1839	93,320	2,460,198
1814	11,476	230,000	1840	101,660	1,942,076
1815	129,248	2,765,000	1841	101,617	2,010,107
1816	137,843	3,555,000			

The following statement of exports from South Carolina, derived from the journals of the day, is given from the year 1832, the period from which has been kept an account of the receipts of rice at the port of Charleston. The exports coastwise being rarely cleared, cannot with accuracy be given. The foreign exports of rough rice are included in the foreign exports of tierces, at the rate of twenty-one bushels to the tierce—and so with the exports coastwise.‖

* Pitkins' Statistics. † Hunt's Merchant's Magazine.
‡ The year of the embargo.
§ War with Great Britain during the years 1812, 1813, and 1814.
‖ This statement is furnished by Mr. J. W. Cheeseborough.

October to October.	CLEAN RICE. Receipts. Tierces.	Export Foreign. Tierces.	Exp. Coast. Tierces.	City Consumption. Tierces.	ROUGH RICE. Exp. For. Bushels.	Exp. Coast. Bushels.
1832–33	143,473	90,246	47,003	7,776	....	....
1833–34	117,403	80,089	30,918	6,330	....	....
1834–35	121,898	74,868	42 501	5,600	317,594	41,289
1835–36	133,633	79,007	47,226	6,200	356,752	63,235
1836–37	119,961	63,396	40,614	5,500	512 808	39,609
1837–38	90,384	51,514	30 837	6 600	336,442	44,733
1838–39	106,001	63,617	36,295	6,850	470,412	43,950
1839–40	107,108	68,795	31,591	6,800	431,506	10,342
1840–41	107,052	75,265	25,970	6,200	455,592	37,166
1841–42	118,004	75,739	34,174	7 200	445,685	15,770
1842–43	136,732	71,675	58,011	7,300	294,018	33,493

The exportation of rough rice to foreign countries commenced about the year 1823,* as appears from the following (among other testimony) "account of the quantity of rice imported into, and re-exported from the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, for ten years, ending 5th January, 1828. Ordered by the House of Commons." Extracted from the *Southern Agriculturist*, volume 1. p. 461.

CLEAN RICE.

	Imports. British Possessions.	Foreign.	Total.	Exports.	Rice cleaned from Paddy.
1819.....cwts.	322,986	102,532	425,518	142,880	....
1820.....	375,461	95,763	471,224	150,552	....
1821.....	192,982	89,085	282,067	100,403	....
1822.....	73,831	56,720	130,551	105,249	....
1823.....	12.871	107,388	120,259	139,600	....
1824.....	30,648	94,056	124,704	79,370	....
1825.....	24,772	123,194	147,966	92,897	....
1826.....	18,918	35,779	54,697	50,463	....
1827.....	50,380	40,774	91,154	35,445	....
1828.....	107,325	43,897	151,222	51,620	....
	ROUGH RICE.				
1820.....	758	....	758	....	....
1821.....	2,093	....	2,093	....	....
1822.....	781	....	781	....	....
1823.....	259	....	259	....	....
1824.....	298	....	298	....	....
" bushels	193	13,053	13,246	....	....
1825...cwts.	....	....	....	....	676
" bushels	3,272	92,480	95,752	....	....
1826...cwts.	....	....	....	....	2,717
" bushels	4,839	111,646	116,485	....	....
1827...cwts.	....	....	....	....	5,435
" bushels	2,855	113,526	116,381	....	....
1828...cwts.	....	....	....	....	1,070
" bushels	10,322	171,893	182,215	....	....

DUTY.

On British clean, 7*s.* 6*d.*; in 1820, reduced to 5*s.*; in 1828, to 4*s.*; subsequently to 6*d.* per cwt.

DUTY.

On foreign clean, 20*s.*; in 1820, reduced to 15*s.*; in 1842, to 6*s.* per cwt.

* The first cargo of rough rice was shipped to England from Charleston by J. Lucas, jun., in the year 1823.

On British rough, 2*s*. 6*d*. per cwt.; in 1823, to 7½*d*. per bushel; in 1827, to 3*d*.; in 1842, to 1*d*. per quarter.

On foreign rough, 10*s*. per cwt.; in 1823, to 2*s*. 6*d*. per bushel; in 1842, to 10½*d*. per bushel.

RICE IN LOUISIANA.

We had thought of preparing an article on the subject which Col. ALLSTON has treated so ably above; but having fortunately received his memoir, which appears in the Agricultural Survey of South Carolina, we conceived that he had exhausted the subject, and that no better service could be done the whole public than an immediate publication of his paper. So interesting and valuable is the document, that it would have been impossible to have left out a single line. Such essays do more for the advancement of agricultural science, than can well be conceived. Louisiana is deeply interested in the prospects of rice. She has an immense country adapted in every respect to its culture, and she is at the present moment, as a producer, exceeded only by two States in the Union, South Carolina and Georgia. The quality produced by her is superior, and were it not for the deficiencies of the machinery used in preparing it for market, the "creole rice" would occupy equal rank with the Carolina. Should the sugar interest be affected injuriously by the tariff, Louisiana may consider herself fortunate in having a reserve in rice, which will augment the agricultural wealth of the State to an extent, difficult to be appreciated. The planters would do well to consider the question, and we invite from them an expression of their views. The remarks we have made apply with equal force to Mississippi. Dr. Cartwright, of Natchez, has informed us that the new grounds of the lower Mississippi produce about seventy-five dollars worth of rice per acre, and that the profits of a crop should not be so much estimated by the yield per acre, as the number of acres a laborer can till, and that after the land is properly prepared for inundation by leveling, ditching and embankments, a single hand can grow almost an indefinite quantity of rice. Dr. Cartwright also states that within forty miles of Natchez there are 100,000 acres of land valued now at from ten to fifty dollars an acre, which, at a small expense, could be converted into productive rice lands. The earliest settlers of Louisiana were aware of the importance of the crop. It had become, in 1723, an article of exchange, like tobacco in Virginia, and its relative value was fixed by law in the purchase of slaves. After the disastrous hurricane of that year, we are informed by Martin, 1 Hist. Louisiana, p. 254, that the colonists were in some degree surprised by the appearance of an unexpected crop of rice; the grain scattered by the hurricane had taken root, and promised a comparative abundance. Ten years afterward, creole rice was valued in the province at three livres, or sixty-six cents the hundredweight.—ED. COM. REVIEW.

Art. III.—ANALYTICAL INDEX OF THE WHOLE OF THE PUBLIC DOCUMENTS RELATIVE TO LOUISIANA, DEPOSITED IN THE ARCHIVES OF THE DEPARTMENT—"DE LA MARINE ET DES COLONIES ET PARIS."—Continued.*

Paris, January 29, 1841.

To his Excellency, A. B. Roman,
Governor of the State of Louisiana.

Sir: You will receive under cover of this La Salle's Act of Possession, in behalf of France, of the mouths of the Mississippi in 1682; and I now beg to continue the memoranda advised in my letter of the 27th.

Dec. 19th, 1768.—Letter from Governor Ulloa to the Marquis de Grimaldi, announcing the revolution in Louisiana—his expulsion and his arrival at Havana.

20th. Statement by Gov. Ulloa of the events in Louisiana—a document containing about 300 pages, very full and very well drawn up; whereby it is fully demonstrated that Aubry, in the whole matter, was the principal informer; that the plan was not for the purpose of remaining under a kingly dominion, but that the end was *freedom*. That for that purpose Messrs. Noyan and Masan were deputed to the English Governor of Florida, then residing at Pensacola, for the purpose of securing the protection of the British Government in behalf of the intended Republic. That the Governor of Florida having refused all aid, the address to France was resorted to by the rebels as a means of concealing their plan. That the leaders were Mr. de Lafrenière, a creole, Mr. Foucault, Mr. Villieré, brother-in-law of Lafrenière; Mr. Heri, Messrs. Noyan, Verret, Marquis; four brothers, Le Roy, who have since assumed the name of Lafrenière; Lere, Banlieu, and Chauvain, Judice, De Lery, Darimsbourg, Hardi de Boisblanc, Thomasson, Fleurian, Cabaré, Ducros, and Millet. That their place of meeting was at the residence of a Mad. Pradel, near the city of New Orleans, where they collected to the number of 500. The plan embraced the whole of Louisiana. This document is full of interest, and shows the cause of the lukewarmness of the French Government in the whole matter. The whole statement of Gov. Ulloa is corroborated by the French governor, Aubry, who, it appears, with the French troops under his command, was treated as an enemy as well as Ulloa. Thus Lafrenière, his brother-in-law, Villieré, Marquis, and their associates, died victims of their love for liberty, and not of their love for France, as generally believed.

21st. Memorial of the inhabitants and merchants of Louisiana, to the King of France, explaining the causes which led to the expulsion of Ulloa. This document, penned by Lafrenière, was drawn up, it appears, after the failure of the application to the British Government for protection, on the standard of liberty being raised. It is couched in fine language, contains valuable statistical information, and shows

* To facilitate researches in the French Archives, the index gives each document in the order placed in each portfolio or paper case, and each portfolio is numbered. These papers not having been classed, the confusion of dates could not have been avoided without subjecting such researcher to much trouble, from the great multiplicity of manuscripts.

that Louisiana in its infancy contained talented men and noble souls.

22d. Letter from the Marquis de Grimaldi to the Count of Fuentes, then ambassador to the court of France, giving an account of a council of state, wherein the whole matter of the Louisiana rebellion is taken up, the council having, with only one dissenting voice, decided to consider Louisiana as a Spanish possession. The marquis announces the appointment of Gen. O'Reilly, with extraordinary powers, modified, however, by the king of Spain, so as to confine to expulsion all cases deserving greater punishment. The ambassador, in the same letter, is desired to demand of the king of France to disapprove the conduct of his subjects in Louisiana.

23d. Letter from Aubry to the Duke of Choiseul, wherein he tries to show that to France Louisiana can be of no advantage, and that to Spain it can be of no other advantage than to protect its Mexican possessions against smuggling. This letter bears date 1768.

24th. Letter from the same to the same, bearing date 24th August, 1769—referring to his former accounts of the doings of the rebels from 29th Oct., 1768, to 20th May, 1769—confirming all the statements of Ulloa—he announces the arrival, at a moment when he considered all lost, of a liberator, Gen. O'Reilly, with 3,000 troops—he gives an account of the transfer of the government to that general—he appears then to have considered the whole matter as ended, and that the past would have been forgotten, the leaders having by his advice quietly submitted.

Paris, February 6, 1841.

Sir: I had the honor of addressing you on the 29th ult. The following are the memoranda since taken by me from the French archives. The ministers who met to decide upon the fate of Louisiana, after the expulsion of Ulloa, were the Duke d'Alba, Munian, the Count d'Aranda, Musquir, Arriega, and the Marquis de Grimaldi. The latter gives a full account of the whole matter. All the documents relative to the conspiracy of 1768, are translations from the originals at Madrid.

25th—1765, 16th Nov. Decree prohibiting the introduction of slaves from Martinique, on account of their propensity to poisoning.

26th—1766, 29th Sept. Letter from Aubry and Foucault notifying the refusal of the French troops to enter into the service of Spain.

27th—1716. Letter from Mr. Duclos to the French minister relative to Natchez.

28th—No date. Finances of Louisiana—first account of the introduction of government paper money in Louisiana by ordinance of the king of France, bearing date September 14, 1735—amount issued 200,000 livres. The reasons alleged for this issue are the same which were given by some of our modern financiers, to justify their application to the bank of the United States for their depreciated paper, to enable the New Orleans banks to resume specie payment. At that epoch the king of France was a merchant, had public stores, and the circulation of his paper money was to have been obtained by its being made a legal tender for all goods purchased from the public stores. This document is not dated, and appears to have been written in 1744–5.

29th—No date. Opinion of Messrs. Bienville and Salmon, regarding the emission of paper money, which they recommend.

30th. Statistics of the Indian nations from Mobile to Carolina—plan presented to secure the trade then carrying on between the Indians and Carolina. This document is without date, and appears to have been drawn up under the administration of Gov. de Kerlerec.

31st—1740. Muster roll of all the officers and cadets in Louisiana.

32d—1710, 13th May. Instruction of the king of France to M. de la Mothe Cadillac, as governor of Louisiana. This document shows the great difficulties the first inhabitants had to labor under.

23d—1743, 21st July. Letter from Vaudreuil Salmon touching the wax-tree.

34th. Memorial of Dr. Brat on the same subject.

35th. Memorial on Natchitoches. This document is interesting; that country is there represented as favorable to all the agricultural products of Europe, and to cotton, tobacco, &c. It bears no date, and appears to have been drawn up by M. St. Denis.

36th—1765. Report of the arrival of 193 Acadians sent to Opelousas.

37th—1764, 7th June. Memorial of the merchants of New Orleans to M. d'Abbadie, depicting the wretched condition of the colony produced by depreciated paper money. This document contains a practical refutation of the credit system as eulogized by so many of our countrymen. It shows the demoralizing effects produced by the shadow being mistaken for the substance.

38th—1764, 10th April. Letter to M. d'Abbadie, respecting 3,000 Indians collected in Mobile; the advantages of the colony, and the progress in the manufacture of sugar.

39th—1764. Letter from M. d'Abbadie to the Duke of Choiseul, announcing the establishment at Lafourche Chetimaches, of about 200 Indians from Mobile—the Teansas.

40th—1704. Statistics of the colony: population, including the garrison, 180 men. Twenty-seven families, three girls and seven boys from one to ten years. Eighty houses covered with lataniers, laid out in straight streets. One hundred and ninety acres of land cleared for the building of the city. Nine oxen, of which five belonged to the king. Fourteen cows. Four bulls belonging to the king. This document is signed "La Salle."

41st—1702. Letter from De la Salle, announcing his arrival at Pensacola and Mobile. This document is interesting.

42d—1702, 11th Dec. Letter from De la Salle to the minister, stating that he has been compelled to dispatch a vessel to Vera Cruz to inform the viceroy of Mexico of the siege of St. Augustine by the English and Indians, with 16 ships.

Pensacola appears to have been founded four years after the discovery of Louisiana.

43d—1729-36. History of the wars in Louisiana. Dartaguette was killed in battle with the Indians.

All the above documents are deposited in Portfolio No. 1, in the "Department de la Marine et des Colonies."

Paris, February 14, 1841.

Sir: I send you herewith a copy of a document written some time

about the year 1744, showing the introduction of paper money in Louisiana, and its disastrous effects upon Louisiana.

The following is a continuation of the memoranda from the archives of the navy department.

PORTFOLIO NO. 2.

44th—1769. Remarks of Mr. Aubry on the rebellion in Louisiana.

45th. Memorial on the finances of Louisiana posterior to 1731.

46th—1697, 14th Oct. Quebec, letter touching information required about the Spanish possessions in Mexico, bordering the tributaries of the Mississippi. This document is interesting; it speaks of La Salle and presents some remarks on the mines.

47th—26th July. Dartaguette in Louisiana, speaks of the inundation by the Mississippi; its waters having risen to the garrets of houses in New Orleans.

48th—22d February, 1759. Survey of the domains of the king adjoining Mrs. Pradel's plantation.

49th—1748, 21st May. Memorial of Mr. Gradesfils in Louisiana, showing the great advantages of that colony.

50th. Project of colonization for Louisiana; demand of a large tract of land on condition of its being cultivated in tobacco, cotton, sugar-cane and indigo. This project, drawn up in Versailles, bears no date.

51st—1717. Memorial of Mr. Hubert on Louisiana, attempting to show that the colonization of that country, if energetically pursued, would gradually lead to the conquest of the whole of North America.

52d—Memorial to show that Louisiana might become as important as Mexico.

53d—1719. Memorial of Mr. Bienville, announcing the fall of Pensacola into his hands, and the events ensuing the same.

54th—1738. Insignificant letter respecting the Jesuits.

55th—1754, 20th Sept. Letter from De Kerlerec to Dauberville, on the necessity of a military station at the Balize. This letter contains an interesting account of the mouth of the river, and a proposal to establish there a floating battery with heavy guns.

56th. Statement of occurrences in Biloxi.

57th. Project to restore confidence in Louisiana, destroyed by irredeemable paper money; proposal to make the king's paper legal tender; form of an edict. This document must have been written sometime about 1754.

58th. Memorial on Louisiana, representing the necessity of retaining that colony in order to prevent the English becoming masters of not only the whole of North America, but also of Mexico. By this document it appears that M. St. Denis headed the twenty Canadians on the exploring expedition from the Red river to the province of Leon in Mexico; it appears to have been written about the year 1715.

59th and 60th. Memorial on the same subject at the same epoch.

61st—1692, 14th Sept. Account of the attack by five 60-gun vessels of the Fort Louis in Louisiana, under the command of M. de Bouillon, Governor of Newfoundland.

62d—1700. Memorial for the colonization of the Mississippi.

63d. List of officers under the command of Dartaguette, and in Louisiana.

64th—1749, 17th Dec. Memorial of M. le Bailey Messager, on Louisiana. This document is interesting; a central power is proposed to be established on the Wabash; fertility of the soil, &c.

65th—1750. Memorial of the same, on the same subject.

66th—1754, 6th March. Memorial on Louisiana, by Mr. Colon, to increase the commerce of Louisiana with the islands and the metropolis; the plan embraces the whole basin of the Mississippi, and is interesting.

67th—No date. Report of three commissioners touching an interview with the Governor of Pensacola, De Galve, for the purpose of devising the means to prevent the English taking possession of that post. Determination on the part of the Governor of Pensacola to rely upon the *Bull* of Pope Alexander VI., conceding the line 180 to the Catholic Kings. The power of the Pope to grant crowns repudiated by the commissioners. This document is curious and appears to have been written in 1709.

68th—1709. Observations on the *Bull* of Pope Alexander; development of the immense advantages to be derived by France from the possession of Louisiana.

69th—1701, 17th July. Memorial on Louisiana; advice to the king as to the measures to be adopted for its welfare.

70th—1709, 27th April. Memorial on Louisiana; situation of the colony.

71st—1712, June. Memorial of Mr. Tions de Gouville, on the advantages of Louisiana, and the causes which have checked all progress in that country.

72d—No date. Memorial on fortifications required.

73d—1738, 10th May. Hubert's memorial on Louisiana. This document is very interesting for its statistical information.

74th—1714. Memorial to show the necessity of inviting immigration to Louisiana. This document is interesting and contains extracts of letters from Crozat.

75th—1716. Great and masterly development of the destinies of Louisiana.

76th—1714, 17th April. Memorial on the wretched condition of the colony.

77th—1716. A memorial is to be found on Louisiana after La Salle's discovery, in the registers of the navy department *8f.*, 123 *vo.* (This is a memorandum in this portfolio.)

78th—1720. Memorial on the fortifications of Pensacola, and of the impossibility, on account of the nature of the soil, to establish good foundations.

79th—1723. Letter and memorial of Mr. Hubert on the advantages of Louisiana.

80th—1753. Prohibition by the Marquis Duquesne against the exportation of grain from Canada; he styles himself Governor of "la Nouvelle France, and of all the lands and countries of Louisiana."

81st—1755. Quebec, Canada, proces verbal of a voyage to the river Senaramixi.

82d—1751, Tombeckbé, 18th June. Letter announcing the capture of five deserters; speeches of the Indians who brought them back to obtain their pardon.

83d—1787. Extract of a letter from M. de Villiers on the subject of a tobacco contract with the king of Spain.

84th—Canada, 1753. Ordinance of the Marquis Duquesne fixing the maximum of wheat to 3 livres per minot on plantations, and 3 livres 10 sols in town.

85th—1716. Memorial of M. Crozat on Louisiana; important developments.

86th—1751, 15th July. Accusation of Mr. Michel against Mr. Fleurian, procureur general, and Capt. Derneville.

87th—No date. Memorial explanatory of patent letters proposed to the king.

88th—1769. Grievances against Governor Ulloa and Aubry. The document is not signed.

89th—1745. Interesting memorial on the administration of Louisiana. By this document it appears that the Ursulines are bound to attend to the hospital, and to educate 30 orphan girls.

90th—1716. Letters patent projected for Louisiana.

91st—1662. Memorials respecting the doings of the West India Company; forms of concessions.

92d—1723. Memorial on the rivers, lands and Indians of Missouri. This document is interesting and shows that there was a traffic then carrying on between Missouri and Mexico.

93d—No date. Memorial for a concession of lands from Manchac to New Orleans.

94th—No date. Memorial on the subject of Father Beaubois, superior of the "Missionaires Jesuites" in Louisiana. This document appears to have been addressed to Governor Bienville.

95th—1738. Memorial of Governor Bienville touching his intended operations against the Chicachas.

96th—1735. Opinion of M. Bienville in case of war.

97th—1735, 25th August. M. Bienville on Georgia; of their system of colonization, &c. This document is interesting.

98th—1735, 20th Sept. M. de Bienville on the Chicachas.

99th—1735, 14th April. M. de Bienville on the Indians.

100th—1739, 25th March. M. de Bienville on the Indians.

101st—No date. Report on the necessity of separating the government of Louisiana from that of Canada, to which, under the West India Company, it was attached. This document was evidently written in 1731; recommends a new organization.

102d—1731, 25th March. M. Paria advises the minister of the defeat of the Renards by the Illinois and other Indians living on the borders of Canada; he enters into some details respecting Indian warfare. Speaks of one of the passes at the Balize having 17 feet water which shortly before had only 12; is of opinion that two vessels employed three months each year, say April, May, and June, would give 22 feet on the bar. Speaks of a report by him on the Balize which I have not yet found. This document is very interesting.

103d—20th August. Account of the Natchez war, by M. d'Iron, 1731.

104th—1735. Bienville on Louisiana, in case of war; its relation with the Indians.

105th—1737, 20th Dec. Bienville's report of two expeditions of the Chactaws against the Chicachas.

106th—1736, 13th August. Bienville's report of deserters brought back by the Alibamons.

107th—1738, 26th April. Bienville's report on the interior of Illinois and Ohio, and of the Indians there.

108th—1738, 22d March. Bienville's report of an exploring voyage to the river Jachoux (Yazoo); details on those countries; discovery of the Chicachas road, which led to the voyage.

109th—1738, 29th May. Bienville's report of the voyage of exploration on the Wabash; interesting account of the adjoining country.

110th—1702, 20th June. Memorial of M. d'Iberville on the Mississippi, the Mobile and surrounding countries; their inhabitants; latitudes of many places taken by him; statistics of all the Indian nations, including the Illinois and Ohio. He states the number of families at 21,860; plan of action proposed. This document is ably drawn up and full of interest; it bears the signature of M. d'Iberville.

111th—1708, 25th Feb. Memorial of M. Dartaguette, giving an account of the information received by him from M. Demny of the fort of Louisiana; statistical report on Mobile.

112th. Letter from Bienville, with a full account of the doings in Mobile and Louisiana; represents the country in a state of great poverty; contains interesting information on the Indians and the English.

113th—1731. Letter from M. de St. Denis to M. Salmon, giving an account of a battle with the Indians.

114th—1763. Evacuation of Louisiana. It is proposed to send to St. Domingo the troops in Louisiana; this plan is approved.

115th. 13th Fructidor An 10, General Milford Tastanagy proposes to answer the application made to the American minister for the purchase of Louisiana; General Milford promises to prove to the first consul that a cession would be fatal to France.

116—1747, Feb. Governor Vaudrieul states his preparations in case of attack by the English; sends a plan of the mouth of the Mississippi (not yet found); says that the bar at the Balize contains 11 or 12 feet, mud and sandy bottom; and 15, 16, and 17 feet on the eastern pass, and a shorter bar.

117th—1712, 8th Sept. Memorial to prevent debauchery (libertinage), in Louisiana.

118th—1762, 13th Nov. Cession of Louisiana to Spain; ratification by the king of Spain.

119th. Questions by General Victor to the first consul, regarding Louisiana, and his answers.

120th—1753. M. de Kerlerec, suit of André Barri.

121st—1701. Memorial of M. d'Iberville on Pensacola.

122d—1703. Project to take Charleston and to burn it.

123d—1750, 1st Feb. Letter of Pierre Rigaut, Marquis de Vaudrieul, informing the king of the necessity he had been under of issuing paper money.

124th. Memorandum to show in what light the West India Company ought to have been considered by the French government.

125th—No date. Memorial of the West India Company.

126th—1685. Memorial of the West India Company.

127th—1753, 8th March. M. Kerlerec, announcing his arrival in

Louisiana; he gives an account of his reception, and some statistical details.

128th—1770, 16th June. Memorial of M. Robé, *Ordonnateur* of Louisiana.

129th—1715. Instructions of the king to Messrs. Lamothe Cadillac and Duclos, governor and *ordonnateur* of Louisiana.

130th—1752. Three tables to carry on the official correspondence between the colony and its metropolis by the means of cyphers, and the key for the same.

No. 520, St. Yago; No. 530, lui; No. 540, ab; No. 550, Croix; No. 460, beau; 400, Canada, etc.

131st—1732, 9th May. *Proces verbal* of Messrs. Perrier and Salmon respecting the arrival of 146 Swiss soldiers.

132d—1760, 2d June. Result of the sitting at the government house respecting certain works to be undertaken.

133d—1707, 22d June. Proposals of M. le Count de Pontchartrain for the formation of a company in Louisiana.

134th—1733. M. de Bienville announces his arrival at the Cape François; hopes to be in New Orleans thirty days after.

135th—1732, 12th May. Letter from M. Salmon touching the condition of Louisiana and Mobile.

136th—1715. Extract of a letter written at Caskasias, a village in Illinois, sometimes called l'Immaculée Conception de la Ste. Vierge, dated 9th November, 1712, by Father Gabriel Marest, a Jesuit residing since several years in that country as a missionary. This letter was printed in 1715 in the "Letters Edifiantes;" it is full of interest, and contains great statistical information.

137th—1761, 12th Dec. Letter of M. Thiton de Sileque in behalf of M. de Kerlerec, stating his services for the king.

138th—No date. Picture of the troubles in Louisiana, and of the demoralization occasioned by paper money; plan to restore confidence; means recommended: "to coerce forthwith the withdrawal of paper money and its payment in full." This document appears to have been written 1760.

No date. M. de Kerlerec asks the cordon rouge, and sends his "feuille de service."

139th—No date. Remarks on the commerce of Louisiana, and its cession to Spain. This document must have been written in 1770.

140th—1764, May. Memorial of M. de Kerlerec on the advantages of a commercial treaty with Spain, with the view of establishing an *entrepot* in New Orleans.

141st—1764, May. Letter of M. de Kerlerec inclosing the above memorial.

142d—No date. Extracts of all the Letters of M. de Kerlerec on the demoralized condition of Louisiana. This document must have been written in 1764.

143d—No date. Memorial of the corps of Engineers; the artillery and cadets of Louisiana.

144th—No date. Memorial on the population of Louisiana; Paris and other large cities of the kingdom had been sending to Louisiana their debauched women; fortunately for the colony, says the paper,

the women died as they arrived; recommends colonization on a more respectable plan.

145th—No date. Memorial on Louisiana, from which it appears that the Capuchins established themselves there in 1722; that their establishment obtained the royal sanction on the 15th July, 1725; that the first treaty between the Jesuits and the West India Company was entered into in 1721; and that they obtained the royal sanction to their establishment on the 20th February and the 17th August, 1726; that their ecclesiastical functions were subject to the control of the Superior of the Capuchins.

PORTFOLIO NO. 3.

146th—1765, 1767. Correspondence of Aubry and Foucault with the government, touching the administration of the country.

147th—1763. Project of evacuation of Louisiana by the French on the cession to Spain.

148th—No date. Memorial on Louisiana. This document appears to have been written toward the year 1730; it is remarkable for its extensive views; it treats of the country of Mobile, of the Balize, of its passes, of the country between the Balize and New Orleans, of the neighborhood of this city, of Point Coupée, of Natchez, of Arkansas, of Illinois; it contains 40 pages, and concludes by offering a plan of colonization for the whole. On the passes it states:

"River St. Louis (Mississippi) throws itself into the sea by five mouths, thus distinguished—eastern pass, south-east pass, south pass, south-west pass, and the Balize. In 1720 the south pass was the only one used.

"It has been observed since these passes have been used, that only one or two can be navigated at the same time, and that even then they have only 10 to 12 feet water on their bars, which vary each year according to the violence of the winds, etc., etc.

"Besides these five passes, the river throws its waters through smaller issues forced by it and called bayous. If three of the above passes were closed, as also the bayous, all the waters would be forced into the two passes situated in opposite directions, such as the pass of the east and the south-west pass; the current being increased there would be less deposits; besides, the wind from the sea, which would stem the current of one pass by throwing a greater bulk of water in the other, would increase its current, whereby the bar thereof would clear itself of mud deposits, etc., etc. These passes and bayous may be easily closed by three or four rows of *pilotis* placed close to each other, and at a distance of about 150 to 200 toises from the mouth of the Mississippi to the pass. The interval would serve as a bed for the drift-wood, which, being thus stopped, would soon be covered with the deposits of the river. I believe that such a work would soon afford a great protection against the river."

A plan is presented for the employment of 325 white families, and 19,000 blacks, in the cultivation of the sugar-cane and tobacco.

149th—1710. Memorial on the advantages to Louisiana of inviting the Acadians established at Detroit, to return to this colony.

150th—1778. Memorial of Mad. Dubreuil, praying for a pension from the French government as daughter of M. Delachaise, director

of the West India Company, who was the first administrator of Louisiana whose wisdom and activity tended to consolidate the colony.

151st—No date. Memorial of the citizen Bounevie to the citizen Decrès, minister of marine and the colonies, proposing to undertake an exploring voyage from the western part of Louisiana to the Pacific ocean.

152d—1754. Exposé by M. Colon, of the advantages to France of the possession of Louisiana. This paper is highly interesting and full of statistical information; it treats fully of the agriculture of the country.

153d—1764. Memorial of M. Colon on the commerce of Louisiana.

154th—1754. Project of association for Louisiana, by M. Colon.

155th—No date. Picture of the wretched condition of the colony, produced by the depreciated currency; plan to restore confidence. This document must have been penned about the year 1765 or 1766.

156th—*An* 12, Frimaire 20. Proces verbal of the "prise de possession" of Louisiana by France. This document is signed Laussat, and is addressed to the citizen Decrès, minister of marine and the colonies.

157th—1766 to 1768. Private letters of M. Foucault to the French minister, No. 1 to 70.

158th—Paris, 29th Fructidor, *An* 9. Memoranda on Louisiana, by M. Joseph Pontalba, of Louisiana. Its position as to the United States; its population; the character of its inhabitants; its culture; its commerce; its resources; the importance it might acquire, and the means to obtain the same. Speaks of a plan proposed by a rich inhabitant of Ohio (evidently Gen. Wilkinson*), to detach the whole of the western country from the east, to form an independent government with Louisiana, etc., etc. This document, dated "Croissy, near Chalons," is addressed to the minister Decrès.

Art. IV.—ON INTEREST, EXCHANGE, AND STOCK-JOBBING CALCULATIONS.

To a great commercial nation, few subjects can be considered of more importance than an accurate acquaintance with arithmetical calculations. Without a knowledge of figures, the statesman, the merchant, and the mechanic, as well as the philosopher, are left to grope their way in doubt and uncertainty; and when ignorant of the principles of arithmetic as a science, it is scarcely possible that men can become confident, accurate, and expert in the application of its rules to the various departments of business. How many?—how long?—how high?—what share?—what profit?—what loss?—what per centage? are questions daily put in the common occurrences of life, and it is the province of the calculator to return correct answers to them.

With our admirable system of numbers, as compared with the clumsy and unwieldy methods of calculation pursued by the ancient

* We shall consider this matter at large in our next number, in an article on Louisiana.—Ed. Review.

nations of Europe, we owe, perhaps, much of the superiority to which we have arrived in the paths of physical science; and independently of the pecuniary advantages to be gained from an intimate acquaintance with the most approved methods of calculating, the close and patient investigation which the study requires cannot fail to strengthen and invigorate the reasoning faculties. Of the numberless uses to which the ten characters borrowed from the Arabians can be applied, none are of more extensive application, and enter more into the business of life, than those which refer to calculations on Interest, Exchange, and Stock-Jobbing Calculations, and on each of these, in their order, a few observations will be made.

On Interest.—It is impossible to say at what period interest first began to be exacted for money given in loan, but it is evident that its origin must be nearly coeval with the division of property, and the first dawning of commerce. For many ages exacting of interest was considered inconsistent with Christianity, and prohibited under severe penalties; but the practice still prevailed, and in proportion as the penalties were severe, the rate of interest beeame the more exorbitant. From the year 1255 to 1270, no less than 50 per cent. per annum was charged for the use of money in Great Britain; from 1270 to 1307, 45 per cent. was charged; and between 1307 and 1470 interest had fallen to 15 per cent. In England, under Henry VIII., interest was permitted by law in 1545, and the rate limited to 10 per cent. In 1624 the legal interest was reduced to 8 per cent.; in 1660 it was still farther reduced to 6 per cent.; and in 1714 it was enacted that no person is to take for the loan of moneys above five pounds "for the forbearance" of one hundred for the space of one year; and that all bonds and contracts for a higher rate of interest to be void and null, and the offender to forfeit triple the value of the sum lent. This act is still in force, regulating the legal rate of interest, and the penalty against usury. But 12 per cent. is legal interest in the East Indies; 8 per cent. in New South Wales; and 6 per cent. in Ireland. Although 5 per cent. is legal interest in Britain, and anything beyond is termed usury and liable to be punished, yet in other countries much higher rates of interest are tolerated. But the profits resulting from the employment of capital in some countries, are now in general so small that the market rate of interest has fallen much below the legal rate.

The Bank of England gives no interest on any moneys lodged in it, but all the established banks in Scotland have been and still are in the habit of giving interest, both on deposit accounts, and on the balances of cash and current accounts. But the difficulty of investing their capital profitably has, for some time, obliged them to reduce considerably the rate of interest allowed; and unless a change take place in their favor in the money market, they must soon for their own safety, withhold interest altogether on deposit accounts.

Exchange.—The doctrine of Exchanges is too extensive and too intricate to admit of being fully explained in an article of this description, and all that can be attempted is a few cursory observations to illustrate some of its leading principles.

Exchange is transacted by bankers and merchants by means of bills of exchange, settling the mutual claims of distant countries with-

out remitting money. Suppose A of New Orleans owed to B of London, one thousand dollars, and C of London owed to D of Paris one thousand dollars, these debts might be settled, if D would draw a bill upon C for $1,000, and sell it to A, he would remit to B, who would receive the amount from C, and thus the several claims would be answered without remitting money. The par of Exchange between different countries is estimated by the weight and fineness of the coins compared, and generally remains the same so long as these are not altered. The principal exceptions to this are, when the coins compared are not of the same metal, that is, the one silver, and the other gold. In these cases the par fluctuates with the relative value of gold and silver bullion. Gold and silver are generally in a small proportion more valuable in countries remote from the mines, occasioned by the expense and risk of transporting them.

The course of exchange between two countries is seldom at par, for this can never happen unless the exports and imports between them are precisely equal. Suppose that America exports to England the same value of goods that England exports to America, then the exchange is at par, that is, the mutual debts of the two countries are equal. But if the exports from America to England should exceed the imports from England, then the balance of trade is against England, and the demand in London for bills on New York, to remit this balance, will exceed the supply, and accordingly they will rise in value: whereas the supply in New York of bills on London will exceed the demand, and consequently they will fall in value, and the exchange will be favorable to New York, and must continue so till the imports at New York equal or exceed the exports from it. The course of exchange can scarcely ever exceed the expense of remitting money, or bullion, for then merchants would remit money to pay their foreign debts in preference to purchasing bills. Again, when the course of exchange is against any country, it acts as a premium for exporting goods to that country to which it is in debt, as the bills obtained in payment are more valuable on that account. Besides, through the management of bills, merchants in effecting circular exchanges, the fluctuations of the course of exchange are generally confined within very narrow limits. From the combined operation of these causes, the course of exchange can never for any length of time, be very much either above or below par.

In every exchange, a fixed sum of the money of one country is always given for a variable sum of the other; and therefore, in all cases, the higher the exchange, the more profitable for the country which gives the fixed sum or rate, and the worse for the other. Every merchant engaged in foreign trade must have occasion frequently to draw and remit bills of exchange; he will therefore find his interest in being thoroughly acquainted with the arbitration of exchange, by which he may often gain more than those who are ignorant of its advantages do by the ordinary profits of their business. But in finding a profitable channel for drawing and remitting, it should always be kept in mind, that the circular exchange must exceed the direct by more than the additional expenses required, otherwise the direct is the preferable. Those who wish to study this subject fully, will find it ably discussed by Mr. Kelly, in his work "On Exchanges," which

is acknowledged to be the most correct and comprehensive system of exchanges in any language.

Stock-jobbing Calculations.—The stocks are the debts contracted by government in the name of loans, for defraying the expense of the public service. Public records are kept of these loans, which amount to an acknowledgment that the nation owes to the lenders or holders the sum specified in these records. The interest of these sums is paid from a fund appropriated by government out of the revenues of the country for that purpose, and therefore they are called funded debts. The interest on these debts is paid half-yearly, and the stock or principal is transferable at the pleasure of the holder. The calculations in stock-jobbing are all connected with the selling and purchasing of these funds. The real value of property in the funds is fluctuating, for, although the rate of interest is fixed, yet many causes operate in changing the market value of the principal, or stock, frequently in the course of a single day, and a knowledge of these causes is necessary to speculate with advantage in the public funds in England.

A large proportion of the national debt of that country is vested in two funds bearing interest at 3 per cent. on the nominal capital. The largest of these is the Three Per Cent. Consols, or consolidated annuities, so called from having been formed by uniting several funds which were formerly kept separate, and the Three Per Cent. Reduced Annuities, which are so called from having had the original rate of interest reduced from four to three per cent. Besides these, there are several other stocks, which generally receive their names from the rate of interest granted. These are the Four Per Cent. Consols, the New Four Per Cents., the Three and a Half Per Cent. Consols, the Three Per Cent. Imperial Annuities, so called because the loans of which they are composed were for the Emperor of Germany, and sanctioned by the British Government. All these are permanent annuities. There are also long annuities, which terminate in January, 1860, and are sold at so many years purchase.

The interest, dividends, or annuities on the Three Per Cent. Consols, Three Per Cent. Imperial, New Four Per Cents., South Sea Stock, and New South Sea Annuities, are all payable at the Bank of England on the 5th of January, and the 5th of July; and on all the other stocks on the 5th of April and 10th of October. The transfer books of every description of stock are shut nearly a month before the day of paying the dividends, and remain shut for about fourteen days after that date. The person in whose name the stock stands when the transfer books are shut, receives the interest for the preceding half year.

When the stock is sold, the purchaser becomes entitled to the interest due upon it, and this is the reason why the Three Per Cent. Consols, and the Three Per Cent Reduced, which are payable at different terms, never sell at the same price. The same reason applies equally to the Four Per Cents., and New Four Per Cents. The difference of price between these stocks arises entirely from the difference of interest due upon them at the time; and it often requires considerable nicety of calculation to ascertain which of them is the preferable investment.

When a new loan is authorized by government, it is made payable by instalments, and a certain portion of nominal stock bearing interest at 3½ and 4 per cent., and a small portion of the Long Annuities is generally offered by the Chancelor of the Exchequer for each £100 to be advanced, and he who gives £100 for the least portion of these different stocks, is always preferred. During the progress of the loan, or till all the instalments are paid up, the several stocks thus united are transferable together, and are therefore called *Omnium;* but when sold separately, they are called Subscription Receipts or Scrip. When any person pays up the whole of the instalments at once, his receipt is, in the language of exchange, generally called "heavy horse;" and the receipt for one or two instalments is called "light horse," and is better adapted for speculation than heavy horse.

The capital of the Bank of England, amounting to 14,553,000 pounds sterling; the nominal capital of the East India Company, amounting to 6,000,000 pounds sterling; and the capital of the South Sea Company are called *Stock*, and transferable like government stock, but they do not belong to what is termed the Funds, or funded debt of the country. There are other sums raised by government, for the payment of which no special provision has been made, and are therefore termed unfunded debts; and under this head may be classed Exchequer, Navy, and Ordnance Bills.

The business of stock-jobbing is almost entirely transacted by stock-jobbers, who find it their interest to keep the art of dealing in the stocks as mysterious as possible; they are allowed ¼ per cent. or 2*s.* 6*d.* per pound for every hundred pounds of stock which they buy or sell. Every person is at liberty to transact his own business on stock exchange without the assistance of a broker, if he is on the spot, and feels so disposed; but unless he has considerable experience in the alley, he will not find this much to his profit.

Before concluding, it may not be uninteresting to lay before the reader a short explanation of the way in which the price of stocks is calculated for one day; say price of stocks, March 17th:

Bank Stock, 266, — signifies that £226 must be given on that day to purchase £100 of that stock, the annual interest of which is about 10 or 11 per cent.

India Stock ——, — means that none of this stock was sold on the day.

Three Per Cent. Reduced, 62¾, 63½, 63—means that the price of this stock fluctuated in the course of the day, etc., etc.

To enter into a minute detail of all the particulars respecting the transfer of stock, the groundless rumors circulated to produce a temporary rise or fall in the market, the artifices resorted to in order to serve some interested purpose, and the endless variety of *Bull* and *Bear* transactions entered into by brokers and others, where no real stock is concerned, are sufficient to fill volumes, and of course cannot have a place in this periodical.

Art. V.—THE ANCIENT SOURCES OF LOUISIANA LAW.

The sources of the law of Louisiana, distinct from her statutory law, are found in the Spanish codes. It is true that while Spain was a Roman province, the civil law, as recognized in Rome, and as now found in the Pandects, did govern the jurisprudence of that country; but it was gradually superseded by the rules from time to time established by the Vandals, Alans, and Suevians, and finally by the Goths. After these had been conquered by the Moors, especially after these last in their turn had been defeated, the lights of the civil law again began to appear, amid the arbitrary regulations previously existing. The first systematic code of Spanish laws of which we have any authentic account, was one adopted by a body of the clergy before the invasion by the Moors in 714. The civil law had ever been a favorite system with ecclesiastics. It vested in them extraordinary authority and privileges. It taught veneration for the church, its ministers, and its property. It was therefore natural for the clergy to feel deeply interested in the renewal of its principles. To them, I am satisfied, we are indebted for the care and protection of this code of laws. Had its preservation depended on statesmen and lawyers only, much of it would have been lost in innovation. But the clergy looked upon the whole body of the civil law as the property of the church, and protected it with religious care. This view is sanctioned by a glance at all the enactments of those times. They will be found, without exception, to be principally devoted to a consideration of sacred things. It is from the codes of laws, thus built upon the principles of the civil law, that much of the law of Louisiana is derived. The first of these was the *Fuero Juzgo*. It was established almost wholly by the clergy. The name may be translated, the adjudged law, or declared statute law. This body of laws embraced twelve books. The first related to the election of kings and legislators, and of the mode of making laws. The second treated of judges, of civil magistrates, and of civil judgments, and the prosecution of actions. The third concerned marriages and successions. The fourth and fifth related to the alienations of the property of the church, of donations, and of contracts. The sixth, seventh, eighth, and ninth, had reference to criminal law, and treated of the forms of accusations and penalties. The ninth had reference to fugitive slaves, deserters, &c. The tenth prescribed the mode of partition in lands, prescriptions, &c. The eleventh had relation to the violation of sepulchres, of the sick, of physicians, of merchants. The twelfth related to equity, of heretics, and of injuries. The character of this code was warlike, partaking, of course, of the character of the times, and suited to the objects of an elective monarchy, It continued until the beginning of the eighth century, when the Moors having invaded the country, the Goths retired to the mountainous parts of Asturias, Burgos, and Biscay. In the early part of this century Pelagio, or Pelayo, a prince of the royal blood, who had retired with a few Goths to the province of Liebunne, headed the remains of this people, and by consummate bravery and prudence, succeeded in mastering the Saracens. In 745, Alphonso, the Catholic, who

was the son-in-law to Pelagio, pushed these conquests over several provinces. During the period of these contests, it became a matter of policy with the prince to ally to his cause the nobility, and the inhabitants of the cities. Out of this scheme arose two important systems of laws. The establishment of feuds, and the grant of municipal or town privileges, which soon began to appear in new codes.

In 992 a more settled state of public affairs produced a more civilized society, and occasioned a necessity for another improved collection of laws. One was about this time established called the Fuero Viego, or old laws, and was probably so called because consisting of decisions of the prince and his ministers, and of old, well-settled customs. It contained five books. The first treated of the relations between the kings and the people; of the obligations of vassals; of the right of vassals to protection; of judicial combats; of the use of arms; of vassals of the soil; of free towns and laws; of penalties for the oppression of vassals by the powerful, by unjust seizure of their provisions, particularly relating to city vassals. The second embraced penal laws and crimes. The third had relation to the formalities which governed pleas in justice; of proofs and sentences; of debts, suretiship, &c. The fourth embraced contracts; dominion over things; of public works; of the construction of mills. The fifth concerned the portion settled on the wife by the husband; of inheritances; of partition of land given for rent; of tutors; of disheritances; of legitimate and illegitimate children; and an appendix.

In this code we begin to discover the gradual advance of the nation from a despotic military state of subjection, to one in which the arts of peace and the comforts of civilized life became more the objects of the law. We see some attempts at defining the power of the king; of regulations for the subjection of the vassals, but also for their protection; of attempts to control the indiscriminate use of weapons; of penal laws; of the formalities of administering justice; and what is the better evidence of an improved and peaceful society, laws regulating contracts, and the possession of property.

These codes continued to receive new accessions and modifications until the year 1137, when the discovery, or if the advocates of M. de Savigny please, the promulgation of the Code and Pandects of Justinian produced an entire change in the history of jurisprudence. The improvements resulting from this reaction in favor of the original principles of the civil law extended to Spain; and if not wholly superseding the codes to which we have referred, at least essentially modified them. Full proof of this assertion is found in the system of laws formed by De Penafort in 1234; which was indeed but an improvement of the code of Gratian. In this system the plan of the Pandects is closely followed. It was divided into five books. The first treated of the dignity of persons; of ecclesiastical judgments. The second continued to treat of ecclesiastical judgments. The third related to the persons of ecclesiastics; of benefices; of prebendaries; of the construction of contracts; of the construction of contracts relating to church property; of jurisdiction of persons; of jurisdiction of persons with respect to their privileges; of the immunity of churches; of the clergy, &c. The fourth em-

braced the laws of the church relating to marriage; of antecedents and their consequences. The fifth embraced criminal jurisprudence; penalties for ecclesiastical crimes; church censures; signification of words; and maxims of the law.

In this code we see the influence of the church proponderating. Ecclesiastical affairs, church property, religious offences and censures, preceding everything except the rights and authority of the prince; while, as said before, the method of the Pandects is pursued, so as to show how fully that code, in every principle relating to the protection of the church, is grafted on the system pursued by De Penafort.

Thus continued the law until Ferdinand the Third, and his son Alphonso the Wise, undertook the reform of the whole body of the Law. Their design was completed by Alphonso, after the death of Ferdinand, in two codes. The first was the Fuero Real or royal law. It embraced four books. The first related to the observance of the Christian faith; to the means of preservation of the king and his children; of the obligations of a Christian king, and of his subjects; of morals and conduct in private life; of titles to church property; of public officers, such as alcades, advocates, notaries, &c. The second treated of judicial proceedings; of tribunals; of commencing suits; of issues; of proof and exceptions; of final judgments. The third relates to matrimony; jointures; aqueducts and gains; division of rented land, legacies, estates in trust, inheritances, tutorships, and contracts. The fourth treated of Jews, Saracens, and their slaves, penalties for crimes, adoptions, emancipations, pilgrims, ships, &c. The second code was the Partidas. This consisted first of the canon law. Second, of ancient laws and the customs of the nation. Third, of an abridgment of so much of the Roman law as related to judgments, contracts, wills. Fourth, of so much of the canon and civil law as concerned espousals, matrimony, &c. Fifth, of crimes and their penalties; and sixth, of the signification of words.

In these two systems we discover an evident improvement in the judicial establishments of Spain. In them, indeed, Alphonso performed for his nation what Justinian did for Rome. The first code, though defective in what may be properly termed public law, was a well-adapted body of laws to the existing state of society; in fact, a code calculated to improve a people in all that related to the rights of persons and things. The omissions, with respect to public law, were supplied in the Partidas, which combined whatever was necessary. This last seemed to have chiefly in view the establishment of a permanent public authority, and the promotion of the national happiness. It provided for the peaceful and continued succession to the throne; for the maintenance of religion; for the ecclesiastical order; for the punishment of offences; and for population. It was, however, not published until 1348; and in the mean time, and subsequently, other laws of a less systematic character had been and were enacted, and for a time maintained some authority. These were, first: Laws *De Estilo*, or laws concerning the forms of proceedings in suits of law. They related to judgments in civil and criminal causes; to persons authorized to appear in courts; to proofs; to contracts and

wills; and to practice in the courts. Secondly, the Pragmaticus, or royal edicts, some of which related to the manner of conducting suits; contracts; testaments; and penalties for crimes. Thirdly: the laws of Toro, enacted in 1505, and which regulated the solemnity of wills; successions *ab intestato*, and by will; legacies to one heir, excluding another; the succession of nobles; the support of natural children; the penalty for adultery, &c. Fourthly, the Ordenamiento Real, or royal law, consisting of ordinances, proclamations, and other royal determinations. All these, however, became incorporated into another code—the Recopilacion, or summary of laws. This was established by Philip the Second in 1567. It consisted of nine books, and embraced numerous titles. The first book contained thirteen titles, treating of the Catholic religion and ecclesiastical affairs. The second treated of laws generally, duties of presidents, of audiences, chancelors, judges, superior officers of courts, the council, &c. The third related to the government of various tribunals; officers of justice in cities, and provinces, officers of exports, rural matters; management of cattle; surgeons, apothecaries, &c. The fourth concerned the royal authority; judgments; mode of carrying on suits; pleas; answers; testimony; practice; contempts; sheriffs; jailors; their fees, &c. The fifth treated of marriage; inheritance; successions; contracts; banks, and their officers; goldsmiths; bakers; commissioners of wills; legacies; succession of nobles; taxes, &c. The sixth treated of knights and gentlemen; towns; vassals; cattle; fortresses; the Cortes; ambassadors; inspections; tributes; ports; exemption from taxes; gamekeeper to the king; the young of noble horses, &c. The seventh related to corporations; rents and propperty of councils; privilege of cities; taxes; limits of commons; ships; artisans; regulation of dress; cloth manufacture; chandlers; tanners, &c. Offences; penalties; punishment of death; challenges, &c. The ninth treated of the royal treasury; the treasurer and auditor; the treasury; council; recovery of taxes; royal rents; tariffs of duties, &c.

After this last collection a new code of laws was adopted, suited to the state of affairs existing in the newly discovered countries in the West, and termed the *Recopilacion de las Indias*, or Summary of Laws for the Indies. It embraced first, ecclesiastical; second, the council of the Indies, and superior and inferior tribunals; third, royal domain, officers, viceroys, presidents of military affairs, ceremonies, post offices, Indian couriers; fourth, discoveries by sea and land, cities, population, their rights, contributions, gold and silver mines, pearl fisheries, manufactures of cloth; fifth, boundaries of different governments, the holy brotherhood, police of cattle, physicians, order of judicial proceedings, domicil; sixth, Indians; seventh, criminal jurisprudence; eighth, royal treasury; ninth, regulation of the armada, or fleets carrying on commerce of the colonies with Spain.

The writer has not had the opportunity of seeing how far the provisions of these several codes, either by statutory adoption or the decisions of the courts, have become grafted on the existing jurisprudence of Louisiana. He has prepared it from crude notes of readings years ago, without even remembering the sources of his information.

He has discovered in Alabama, especially, a prevailing opinion that the law of Louisiana is alone the *corpus juris civilis*. Even the erudite author of Law Studies has committed this error. (Introduction to Law Studies, by Warren, p. 252, last edition.) In the hope that he may be corrected in this error, whose practice and studies do not authorize the investigation, he submits it, hoping the Louisiana bar will pardon the effort to treat of the ancient sources of their law, and excuse any errors which their better knowledge may discover.

"It is thus we have witnessed the formation (even its process of crystalization, as it were), of the existing jurisprudence of Louisiana. Its ingredients are derived from various sources, and after being filtered through numerous codes, meet in one harmonious mass. The protection of wives, incautiously engaged for the contracts of their husbands, rests upon a Roman Senatus Consultum—their ultimate rights in the property acquired during the marriage, upon the customs of the erratic tribes that overran Gaul, and were carried by the Visigoths across the Pyrennees. The wisdom of Alphonso is found infused into many of the institutions, which owe their origin to Alfred the Great. The common law has paid back a part of what it had borrowed from the Roman Jurisprudence. The commercial law, standing out almost independently of the Code, rests in a great measure upon the usages of commercial States, but more especially of the United States and Great Britain, but slightly modified by positive local legislation. The whole body of our law thus forms a system, most admired by those who understand it best, and who can trace back its principles to the sources from which they originally flowed. Of the spring-heads of our law it may be said, as it has been of the waters of Castalia:

'There shallow drafts intoxicate the brain,
But drinking deeply sobers us again.'

If I might be allowed to enlarge still farther upon this interesting topic, I would say that the same process of the formation of laws has been going on in all ages and in every region within the range of history. Conquest, and, commerce and the migration and intermingling of races, have everywhere brought about changes of laws. The oracular obscurities of the twelve tables were brought by the Decemvirs from Greece. At a later period, the same laws, developed and improved, were disseminated everywhere by the victorious legions of the Republic. They became mingled with local usages, which were respected by the conquerors. The migratory Germanic tribes carried with them their customs, which acquired the force of laws—and hence many of the different customs and *fueros* which prevailed in France and in Spain. The Norman conquest introduced into England many of the customs of that province, and the law itself was administered by Normans in Norman French. Hence we may trace to the customs of Normandy the widow's third and other peculiarities of the English law. The Military Feudality of the middle ages upset the whole system of land titles and tenures, and established that relation of lord and vassal, a fruitful source of innumerable laws and customs. In Rome, not only the edicts of the Prætor often modified the existing laws, but the wildest decrees of the plebeian order were respected even under the reign of the Cæsars. The Saracen conquest of Spain left indelible impressions on the laws and institutions of the peninsula, and the *Alcalde* of the present day derives his name from and exercises similar functions to those of the *Cadis of Bagdad*."—Hon. Henry Bullard.

1.—COMPARATIVE PRICES OF NEW ORLEANS SUGAR AND MOLASSES IN NEW ORLEANS AND CINCINNATI.

WEEKS.	1843.—Crop 140,000 hhds.				1844.—Crop 100,000 hhds.				1845.—Crop 200,000 hhds.			
	NEW ORLEANS.		CINCINNATI.		NEW ORLEANS.		CINCINNATI.		NEW ORLEANS.		CINCINNATI.	
	Sugar.	Molasses.	Sugar.	Molasses.	Sugar.	Molasses.	Sugar.	Molasses.	Sugar.	Molasses.	Sugar.	Molasses.
January...1..	3 @ 4¼	12 @ 13½	5 @ 6¼	23 @ 25	4¼ @ 7½	22½ @ 23	5½ @ 6½	26 @ 27	2½ @ 5½	16½ @ 17½	4½ @ 5½	23 @ 25
8..	3 .. 4¼	11 .. 12	5 .. 6¼	23 .. 25	4¼ .. 7½	23 .. 23	5½ .. 6½	27 .. 28	2½ .. 5½	16½ .. 17	4½ .. 5½	22½ .. 25
15..	3 .. 4¼	11 .. 12½	5½ .. 6¼	23 .. 25	5 .. 7½	22½ .. 23	6 .. 7	29 .. 30	2½ .. 5½	15 .. 17	4 .. 5½	22 .. 24
22..	3 .. 4¼	11½ .. 12	5½ .. 6	17 .. 19	5 .. 7½	22 .. 23	6 .. 7	39 .. 40	2½ .. 5½	15 .. 16½	4 .. 5½	20 .. 23
29..	3½ .. 5	13 .. 14	4½ .. 5½	17 .. 19	5 .. 7	22 .. 23	6 .. 7	39 .. 40	2½ .. 5½	14½ .. 15½	3½ .. 5½	17 .. 21
February .5..	3½ .. 5	11½ .. 12½	4½ .. 5	17 .. 19	5 .. 7½	23 .. 23	6½ .. 7	27 .. 27½	2½ .. 5½	14½ .. 16	4 .. 5½	17 .. 21
12..	3½ .. 5	12 .. 13	4 .. 5	17 .. 19	5 .. 7½	23½ .. 24	6½ .. 7	27 .. 27	2½ .. 5½	17½ .. 18	3½ .. 5	18½ .. 21
19..	3½ .. 5	11 .. 12½	4 .. 5	17 .. 19	5 .. 7½	22½ .. 23½	6½ .. 7	27½ .. 29	3 .. 5½	17 .. 17½	4 .. 5½	21 .. 23
26..	3 .. 5	12 .. 13	4 .. 5	16 .. 17	5 .. 7½	23 .. 24	6½ .. 7	27½ .. 29	3 .. 5½	18½ .. 21	4 .. 5½	21 .. 23
March....5..	3 .. 5	13 .. 13	4 .. 5	16 .. 17	5 .. 7½	23 .. 24	6½ .. 7	27 .. 28	3 .. 5½	20½ .. 21	4½ .. 5½	23 .. 25
12..	3 .. 5	13 .. 13	3½ .. 5	16 .. 17	5 .. 7½	23½ .. 23½	6½ .. 7	27½ .. 29	4 .. 5½	21 .. 22½	4½ .. 5½	26 .. 28
19..	3 .. 5	14 .. 14½	3½ .. 5	16 .. 17	5½ .. 7½	23½ .. 23½	6½ .. 7	28 .. 28½	4 .. 5½	23½ .. 25	5½ .. 6½	28 .. 30
26..	3½ .. 5	14½ .. 15	3½ .. 5	16 .. 17	5½ .. 7½	23½ .. 24	6½ .. 7	28 .. 28½	5 .. 6½	24 .. 26	5½ .. 6½	33 .. 35
April.....2..	3½ .. 5	15 .. 16	3½ .. 5	16 .. 17	5½ .. 7½	23 .. 25	6½ .. 7	28 .. 29	5 .. 6½	25 .. 26	6 .. 7	33 .. 35
9..	3½ .. 5	15 .. 15½	4 .. 5	17 .. 18	5½ .. 7½	24½ .. 26	6½ .. 7	29 .. 30	5 .. 6½	26 .. 26½	6½ .. 7½	33 .. 35
16..	3½ .. 5½	15 .. 16	4 .. 5	17 .. 18	5½ .. 7½	24½ .. 26	6½ .. 7	30 .. 30	5½ .. 6½	30 .. 31½	6½ .. 7½	33 .. 35
23..	3½ .. 5½	15 .. 16	4 .. 5	17 .. 18	5½ .. 7½	25 .. 26½	6½ .. 7	30 .. 32	5½ .. 7	27 .. 30	6 .. 7½	34 .. 35
30..	3½ .. 5½	15½ .. 16	4½ .. 5½	17 .. 18	5½ .. 7½	25 .. 26½	6½ .. 7½	32 .. 33	5 .. 6½	27 .. 28½	6½ .. 7½	33 .. 35
May.....7..	3½ .. 5½	16 .. 17	4½ .. 5½	17 .. 18	5½ .. 7½	25 .. 26½	6½ .. 7½	32 .. 33	5 .. 6½	22 .. 28	6½ .. 7½	33 .. 35
14..	4½ .. 5½	17½ .. 18	4½ .. 5½	17 .. 18	5½ .. 7½	24 .. 25½	6½ .. 7½	32 .. 33	4½ .. 6½	23 .. 29	6 .. 7½	33 .. 35
21..	4½ .. 5½	17½ .. 19	4½ .. 5½	19 .. 22	4½ .. 7	24 .. 25	6½ .. 7½	32 .. 33	4½ .. 6½	18 .. 27	6 .. 7	33 .. 35
28..	4½ .. 5½	17½ .. 19	4½ .. 5½	20 .. 22	4½ .. 6½	24 .. 25	6½ .. 7½	32 .. 33	4½ .. 6½	18 .. 27	5½ .. 7	32 .. 33
June.....4..	4½ .. 5½	17½ .. 19	5 .. 5½	23 .. 24	4½ .. 6½	23 .. 24	6½ .. 7½	32 .. 33	4½ .. 6½	18 .. 27	5½ .. 7	32 .. 33
11..	4½ .. 5½	17 .. 18	5 .. 6	25 .. 25	4½ .. 6½	23 .. 25	6½ .. 7½	31 .. 32	4½ .. 6½	18 .. 27	5½ .. 7	31 .. 33
18..	4½ .. 5½	17 .. 18	5½ .. 6½	25 .. 25	4½ .. 6½	21 .. 25½	6½ .. 7½	31 .. 32	4½ .. 6½	18 .. 27	5½ .. 7	31 .. 33
25..	4½ .. 5½	16 .. 19	5½ .. 6½	25 .. 25	4½ .. 6½	21 .. 25½	6½ .. 7½	31 .. 32	4½ .. 6½	20 .. 27	5½ .. 6½	31 .. 33
Average...	4 40–100	14 77–100	4 97–100	19 46–100	6 11–100	23½	6 65–100	30 53–100	5	21 83–100	5 75–100	28 47–100

2.—SUGAR CROP OF LOUISIANA FOR 1845.

Mr. P. A. Champomier has just issued his Annual Statement of the Sugar Crop of Louisiana. It is a neat pamphlet of some thirty-seven pages, containing the name of every sugar planter in the State, the product of each plantation, and much other matter, which renders it a work of great value to all interested in the growth and consumption of this important staple of Louisiana. After enumerating the different plantations, with the product of each, &c., Mr. C. furnishes the following interesting

RECAPITULATION.

Names of Parishes.	No. of Planters.	No. of Sugar Houses.	No. of Steam Power.	No. of Horse Power.	No. of hhds. Sugar.	No. of 1,000 lbs. net.
Pointe Coupée	51	40	34	6	1,206	1 259
West Baton Rouge	78	52	39	13	4,961	5,918
East Baton Rouge	54	35	16	19	4.222	4,856
Iberville	194	116	74	42	15.624	17,417
Ascension	96	63	42	21	16,906	19,119
St. James	197	81	53	28	17,515	19,390
St. John the Baptist	145	61	33	28	9,909	10,445
St. Charles	94	39	34	5	10,650	11.145
Jefferson	49	29	29	..	7,541	8,185
Orleans and St. Bernard	47	26	22	4	5,670	6,191
Plaquemines	77	45	33	12	11,321	12,573
Assumption, Bayou Lafourche	206	137	41	96	12,076	13 487
Lafourche Interior	164	98	33	65	11,116	12,144
Terrebonne	104	78	42	36	12,080	13,509
St. Mary, Attakapas	283	179	80	99	24,722	29.194
St. Martin, do.	115	69	9	60	5,246	6,221
Vermillion, do.	33	19	1	18	1,176	1,326
Lafayette, do.	11	7	..	7	365	403
St. Landry, Opelousas	37	26	5	21	1,352	1,568
Calcassieu, do.	11	11	1	10	119	119
Sundries and Molasses Sugar	..	..	..	..	3,000	3,000
Cistern Sugar	..	..	..	..	9,873	9,873
Avoyelles, Red river	8	7	2	5	.....	.....
Rapides, do.	19	18	5	13	.....	.....
Catahoula, do.	1	1	..	1	.....	.....
Concordia, do.	1	1	..	1	.....	.....
West Feliciana, Mississippi river	2	2	2	..	.....	.....
Total	2077	1240	630	610	186,650	207,337

To this are appended the following explanatory

REMARKS.

I have thought proper in this recapitulation to include the Cistern Sugar, estimated at 5 per cent. on the crop, believing that a large portion of it will be re-boiled by the planters themselves, as the refiners last year lost money at the prices they paid, and besides, it is really sugar, and should therefore be estimated in the crop.

The molasses, as was the case the last year, is generally estimated at less than usual; but, while the old plantations have made less than usual, the new ones have given a fuller yield, and it will therefore not be correct to estimate it at less than 54 gallons per 1,000 lbs. sugar, or upward of nine millions of gallons.

Though, with extended culture and new plantations on the river and Bayou Lafourche, the parishes have yielded less than last season; with a few exceptions, all planters have fallen short, while the Attakapas parishes have produced considerably more than last season.

The early frost has probably injured the crop to the full extent of 15,000 hhds., and some crops have been entirely lost by not being ready in time to grind; one large crop by the sugar house being burnt when just begun making sugar.

Since completing my work I have learned of the existence of several sugar houses having made sugar the past season, but as it was too late for me to visit them, I have concluded not to notice them for the present.

I find there will be in full operation in 1847-8, 1,240 sugar houses, owned by

2,077 separate proprietors or heads of families; the produce this last year from 955 sugar mills is 186,650 hhds., or 207,377 hhds. of one thousand pounds net; that there are 204 sugar mills that will produce in 1846–7 and 81 that will produce in 1847–8, but fully expect the number will be still farther increased, as there are such large bodies of sugar lands on the river and bayous that only require capital to place them under culture, and there is no doubt the culture of the cane can be extended farther west, and I believe the day is not far distant when our Red river steam-packets will be equally loaded with sugar and molasses as well as cotton, as our Bayou Sara packets now are.

Of the 1,240 sugar mills, which will be in full operation in 1847–8, about 630 will be by steam power and 610 by horse power, but the former will rapidly increase, as a good many planters now working by horse power have already contracted for their engines, besides the new planters that are, generally speaking, preparing for steam engines.

Had my statement been deferred until the last of April, I have no doubt it would be ascertained that the crop is larger than I make it, as I am sorry to say that some parties interested, who view a large crop in a different light to what I do, have endeavored to lead me into error on that subject, though I owe my thanks to many who have assisted me in obtaining correct information.

3.—CULTURE OF SILK IN LOUISIANA.

Mr. L. Garnier lately exhibited to the Legislature twenty-two pounds of silk, produced by him, and spun in his house by individuals attached to his family. Mr. Garnier confesses that the results of his labor have not been encouraging, but that he does not yet despair. He refers to Mr. Maillé, who is making other experiments near Covington, on a farm, where he has already two hundred thousand *morus multicaulis*, and a steam engine for spinning silk. Mr. Garnier is earnest upon farmers to join in the enterprise, inasmuch as one million of that class in France are engaged in the pursuit, and the produce of their labor is one of the richest branches of the national industry.

4.—MERCANTILE INTEGRITY.

The creditors of James Reed, of Boston, have recently presented him with a costly service of plate, in testimony of their high appreciation of his character and conduct. Mr. Read, in the commercial embarrassments of 1841, was compelled to stop payment and go into bankruptcy for the sum of $850,000, his whole assets not producing over $800 000, leaving a balance against him of $50,000, from which, according to the usually understood rules of trade, he was discharged. This noble-minded individual looked upon the matter in another light, and having applied himself again to business with success, tendered to his creditors, within a few months past, a check for the remaining $50,000. Let these things be recorded!

5.—LIBRARIES IN NEW ORLEANS.

This city contains at present four libraries accessible to the public. The first in size and importance is the private library of B. F. French, Esq., now occupying two apartments in the Merchants' Exchange, Royal street.

This extensive and unique collection of books, when no public library existed in the city, four years ago, was thrown open to the use of the public for reference, gratis, on which footing it still remains. It now contains about seven thousand five hundred volumes of standard works in the Greek, Latin, French, Spanish, and English languages; including works on statistics, commerce, history, biography, natural and physical sciences; besides some beautiful specimens of early printing, from 1452 to 1490, and most of the classical writers in folio, from 1495 to 1550.

A manuscript history of the English revolution in 1688, a manuscript history of the proceedings of the American Congress, held at New York in 1765, formerly owned and was presented to Mr. French by the Hon. Charles Thompson, Secretary of the Congress held in Philadelphia in 1774.

It would be extremely desirable to see this valuable collection of books forming a part of the collection belonging to the Public School Library of the Second Municipality; the city might then boast of the largest and best-selected library in all the South-west.

The second in importance is the library belonging to the State, now located in

the wing of the State House on Baronne street. It contains about 3,000 volumes of well-selected books, including a folio copy of Audubon's Ornithology, Dinon's Egypt, Humboldt's Travels and Musée Français.

The third in size is the Public School Library of the Second Municipality, just opened in the City Hall on St. Charles street. It contains about three thousand volumes, one half of which are valuable standard works in every department of literature. This is a subscription library, and is opened from 2 P. M. to 9 P. M., every day.

The fourth and last is the "Young Men's Free Library Association," located at the corner of Custom House street and Exchange Place, First Municipality.

This is a new institution, and promises to be exceedingly useful. Files of papers from all parts of the Union may be seen here. The library contains about two thousand volumes of well-selected books. It is a subscription library, and is opened every day, from 9 A. M. to 9 P. M.

6.—HEALTH OF NEW ORLEANS.

The total number of interments in the city of New Orleans for the year 1845, was 2,783, classified as follows, viz.: white adults, 1,287; colored adults, 386; white children, 683; colored children, 381; not distinctly marked, 46.

There is but little doubt that a greater number of extremely old people may be found in Louisiana than in any other State in the Union, as was shown by the last census; which proves that how much soever immigrants may suffer while undergoing acclimation, the climate *per se* is by no means inimical to longevity. We invite particular attention to the comparative mortality of the white and colored population; the statistics here given would indicate the deaths to have been greater among the colored than the white, in proportion to numbers.

We have long been under the impression, that when a fair comparison should be instituted, the annual mortality of New Orleans would be found to be as small in proportion to the population as any large city in the Union; or, indeed, the world. The results of 1845 will show the fact with regard to Boston, which is esteemed one of our healthiest American cities, and we hope to be able to give, in our next number, the comparison with New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore. We learn from a late number of the British American Journal of the Medical and Physical Sciences, that the mortality of Montreal, Canada, a city of about 50,000 inhabitants, for the month of December last, was 270; while the mortality in New Orleans for the same month was 246.

Now, taking the average annual population of New Orleans at 150,000 (which is probably considerably short of the mark), our mortality of 2,783 would be about 1 in 54, or within a fraction of 1.85 per cent.

Our estimation of the population will surely appear most moderate, if it be recollected that the census of 1840, taken in the summer, gave us 102,000; that for three decennial periods previous the population had been nearly doubled; that since 1840 the increase has probably been as great as at any time before; and that during six months of the year we are supposed to have a floating or transient population amounting to 40 or 50,000.

New Orleans is looked upon abroad as a perfect charnel-house—a Golgotha—a "whited sepulchre," fair enough without, but within "filled with dead men's bones," but the results of careful investigation would lead to a very different opinion. Will it be said that we are fortunate in having one of our most healthy years for the comparison? It is true we had no epidemic last summer; but we had as much other sickness as usual when yellow fever does not prevail.—*New Orleans Medical Journal.*

THE

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

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LOUISIANA.*

"Si je réglais mes conditions sur ce que ces vastes territoires vaudront aux États-Unis, les indemnités n'auraient point de bornes," said Napoleon, when pressed by the times and by the exigencies of his treasury he called Barbé Marbois to his side, and instructed him immediately to open negotiations with Mr. Livingston for the sale of Louisiana to the Americans. "I want fifty millions," the first consul continued, "and for less than that sum I will not treat: I would rather make a desperate attempt to keep these fine countries."

We have opened with this extract from Marbois' history of the negotiation, which Mr. Gayarré has felicitously adopted as the motto of his work on Louisiana. Bonaparte, with that decision of character which made him superior to every emergency, and with that political foresight which was only second to his great military genius, seized upon the first breathing moment which the conflicts of Europe would admit, to fix the destiny of Louisiana on the best possible basis for the interests of France. On the 10th April, 1803, he summoned to his presence two ministers well acquainted with French continental possessions, one of whom was M. Marbois. He told them that he was aware of the vast importance of Louisiana, which had just returned to the possession of France, after having been abandoned since 1763 to Spain, by the fault of the French negotiator. That the British had taken from France Canada, Cape Breton, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and the richest portions of Asia, but that he had solemly resolved the Mississippi, which they coveted, should not be theirs. The conquest of Louisiana would be easy, if they would only take the trouble to make a descent upon it. If there is yet time they shall see that it is no longer within their reach. I will cede it to the United States. These republicans ask of me only one town in Louisiana; but I already consider the colony as entirely lost; and it appears to me, that in the hands of this growing power it will be more useful to the policy and even to the commerce of France, than if I should attempt to keep it.† This was making virtue of an imperious necessity, on the part of a man who understood the vast value of the territories which were slipping from his grasp, which could not possibly be retained, but for which

* Histoire de la Louisiane, par Charles Gayarre. Premier volume. Nouvelle Orléans: imprimé par Magne & Weisse, 81 Rue de Chartres. 1846.

† Marbois' Hist. Louis., p. 274.

he would not consent to treat, even then, on a lower basis than fifty million francs

But Louisiana has passed into the hands of the United States. All the heart-burnings of those who opposed the measure, all the exultations of its friends, have long since subsided, and the sober and enlightened judgment of the whole country, and of the world at large, has admitted the wisdom of a purchase which has brought us a great and a fertile country, commanding the gates of the Mississippi, open to the Gulf of Mexico, limitless in resources, and destined, in the hands of God, to be the right arm of American wealth, liberty and power.

Out of this vast domain has been carved Texas.* We shall not pause here to speak of this virgin country, which we have hardly yet learned to appreciate, either in its elements of wealth or influence—Texas, which in an evil hour we sacrificed to Spain, but which was watched over by a ruling and benignant Providence, and brought back with its gallant populace to the homestead of its republican brotherhood across the Sabine, in defiance of the armies of Mexico, the wiles of European diplomacy, and the infatuation of a large portion of our own countrymen.

We confine ourselves here to Louisiana proper. We are acquainted with the interest she excites, necessarily, in every portion of the Union, and know how desirable it is that a general understanding should be had abroad of the peculiar structure of her society, her government and her laws, in so many respects without parallel in any other portion of the States. It could not but be expected that the policy of a State would be largely influenced by the vicissitudes through which she has passed, and by the admixture of races or of people who have found a home upon her soil, and shared empire and dominion over her. And such indeed is the case, as we shall have abundant evidence hereafter.

To understand fully the constitutional and legal, and the general history of the State, it will be necessary to refer over and over again to several standard works. These are now upon the table before us, and we shall, *in limine*, make a few reflections upon them in their order.

I. *Histories of Louisiana.*—Major Amos Stoddard published, in 1812, a work entitled "Sketches, Historical and Descriptive, of Louisiana." It embraces a most interesting collection of material, and discusses, in an enlightened and liberal spirit, the policy and history of the State. Mr. Stoddard had full opportunity to inform himself of his subject. He had taken possession of the country for the United States, under the treaty of cession, and had had access to all the public records. He also resided several years in the State, and tells us that respectable men in most of the districts, furnished him with such local and other information as they possessed.

In 1827, François Xavier Martin, judge of the Supreme Court of Louisiana, published a work, in two volumes, on the State. Judge Martin's work embraces a very extended field, and might, with much

* We hold to this interpretation of the treaty of purchase, whatever may be urged to the contrary, and though M. Marbois, one of the negotiators, confesses an intentional ambiguity in the boundary clause. Hist. Louis., p. 286.

propriety, have been entitled, Outlines of the History of America since its Discovery. He is learned and elaborate; but there is nothing in his work which would warrant us to believe that he considered history as a science, and the facts with which it is conversant only important as they indicate principles of universal use and application. Judge Martin, when speaking of Louisiana, loses himself in his details, and we have scarcely a comprehensive view throughout the whole work. His history is chiefly important as a storehouse of valuable material, out of which another might rear a beautiful structure. The style, too, of the production, is frequently dry and inelegant; but of this it is ungenerous to complain, since the author has candidly informed us that as he does not write in his vernacular tongue, elegance of style is beyond his hope, and consequently without the scope of his ambition. He also tells us that the labor of twenty years has been spent in the collection of materials, and that age has at last crept upon him, and the decay of his constitution has given more than one warning, that if the sheets now committed to the press were longer withholden, the work would probably be a posthumous one.*

In 1828, the Marquis de Marbois, a peer of France, and a man deeply conversant with the history of his own and of other countries, enriched the world with a volume upon Louisiana, conceived in the most liberal, enlightened and philosophic spirit. Marbois had been intimately connected with the transactions he was to discuss. He tells us that the treaty of cession of Louisiana had given rise to regrets in France, and that these could not be better dissipated than by a clear and dispassionate view of the whole transaction. No man was better qualified for the work. For more than fifty years M. de Marbois had watched our national progress with an eye evidently partial to our interests, and gratified at our success. His writings bear ample testimony to this declaration. As a sound and judicious exposition of the nature of our government, the present work is valuable; but its peculiar interest consists in the history of the Louisiana treaty, in which he held a conspicuous part. In whatever light it is considered, we cannot point to a single historical work more worthy of a place in every American library.† This noble

* Let us not be charged with injustice to Judge Martin. His late retirement, at a ripe old age, from the bench of the Supreme Court, which he has occupied for over thirty years, is an event which furnishes us an opportunity, as a lawyer, to pay a deserved tribute to his pre-eminent legal character. One cannot refer to his voluminous decisions without admiring the depth of learning, the cogency of reasoning, and the clear appreciation of right and justice which characterize them all. We admire Judge Martin, the jurist. More than fifty years ago he commenced his mission as a lawyer. By industry and application, more than by adventitious circumstances, he succeeded in acquiring his elevated position, and with it a fortune scarcely equaled by any professional man in the country. Besides his history of Louisiana, he has contributed to the world a digest of its laws, and twenty volumes of reports. He is also the author of a history of North Carolina. Possessing a retentive memory and a readiness of application, joined to astute reasoning powers, he has rendered, in the language of the Louisiana Law Journal, decisions on important and difficult questions which possess undoubted merit, and will stand the test of time. The same journal throws some doubt upon the authorities which he consulted in his History of Louisiana; as for instance, Tonti and Vergennes; but we think without any great effect; for Tonti might have been quoted though he never wrote the work, and yet be authority: and the memoir of Vergennes is several times referred to in the English edition of Marbois.

† North American Review, 1830.

Frenchman had filled the highest stations in his country. He was Secretary of Legation to the Empire in 1769. At Dresden and Bavaria he was Chargé d'Affaires, and afterward a Counselor at the parliaments of Metz. In 1779 Marbois was recognized as Secretary of Legation under the Chevalier de la Luzerne, Minister of France to the United States; and five years afterward as Chargé d'Affaires to the same government. He married an American lady, returned to France in 1790, was entrusted with important missions by Louis XVI., was imprisoned by Robespierre, made President of the Council of Ancients, banished by a revolutionary faction, restored by Bonaparte, made Counselor of State and Director of the Treasury, and finally Minister Plenipotentiary on the part of the French republic to treat for the cession of Louisiana. Marbois, after filling other high honors under the Consulate and Empire, was made a peer on the restoration of the Bourbons, Secretary of State, and Keeper of the Seals. He was a man of letters and a philosopher; and in addition to the work before us, has contributed works on morals, on finance, and on history.*

In 1830, Charles Gayarré, a native of Louisiana, and now the Secretary of State, was induced to publish, in the French language, a manual of the history of his State, as he modestly terms it: Essai Historique sur la Louisiane. He pleads that this was a youthful production, and that having lately had access to valuable documents from France, he was induced to attempt a more extended and elaborate history of the State. The first volume of this undertaking is before us, written in French, and printed in the most beautiful style by a New Orleans publisher. We have placed the work as a text for our article, and shall have frequent occasion to refer to it hereafter.

That a work should be published in the United States and for the use of American citizens, in the French language, has been thought not a little singular by many with whom we have conversed. In this category we were found ourselves, up to the period of the publication, and even now, after having given full hearing to the ingenious apologies of the author, our doubts have been shaken only, and by no means removed. Such a work can only be intended for the people of Louisiana, for those of France have long since lost all interest in their ancient possession. The Louisianians of French origin, or even of French birth, as a general rule, have acquired a sufficient knowledge of English to be able to read and speak it with ease and fluency, we mean the enlightened portion of them, for it is only in this class that Mr. Gayarré could expect readers at all. Why then write an elaborate work for these in a language, though consecrated by the tenderest associations of our nature, rather than in another, with which, as American citizens, it is their best interest, as well as their highest duty, to be familiar? We would have proposed this query before seeing Mr. Gayarré's work, and really after the best reflection have not been able to pursue a different course, however much we may be disposed to do full justice to the motives of the writer and to his work.

Mr. Gayarré tells us that comparing the historian to the artist

* Marbois' History of Louisiana, pp. 9, 10, 11, 12.

about to execute a portrait, there are but two methods for him to adopt. He may strike out with a bold pencil the main outlines, the leading traits, the grand points of resemblance,—se contentant de saisir les principaux traits et ce jeu de physionomie qui constitue la ressemblance; or he may adopt what is called the anatomical method,—appelèr de la peinture anatomique, and descend to the minutiæ of his subject, omitting not the slightest and most delicate shades and touches; n'omettant ni une mèche de cheveux ni une ligne veinuèse. Mr. Gayarré has chosen the latter method, because it was a family portrait on which he was engaged, to be kept with the old family mansion and all the heir-looms of a venerated ancestry. Louisiana he can only regard as a tender mother. All the affections of his heart are entwined around her, and the most trifling incidents connected with her history are treasured up in his memory. The language of the historian here is so beautifully tender, and betrays so much of the best feelings of our nature, that we cannot refrain from giving the whole passage as he has written it.

"Mon cœur me dit que c'était notre mère, à nous Franco et Hispanio-Américains, qui était là devant moi. Mon cœur me dit que dans le portrait de l'objet aimé, on regrettait toujours l'omission de la moindre minutie, d'un signe, d'une marque presque imperceptible pour un œil indifférent, même d'un pli de vêtement. Ainsi, j'entrai dans des détails qui nuiront peut-être à l'effet de l'ensemble. Je sentis que je travaillais, non pas seulement pour satisfaire le goût ou l'esprit, mais le cœur. J'avoue donc que je me suis plu à contempler la Louisiane avec un microscope, et à la reproduire comme je l'avais vue. C'est-à-dire que, pour le moment, c'est un portrait de famille que j'ai voulu faire, et, je le répète, je suis entré dans des details qui ne seront nullement interessants pour l'étranger. Mais j'ai jugé mes compatriotes d'après moi-même, et j'ai pensé que, dans l'inventaire que j'ai fait des souvenirs laissés par leurs ancêtres, ils me sauraient gré de n'en avoir pas omis même les plus insignificants et d'en avoir par là complété la série. De là, des redites et des longueurs."—*History Louisiana*, p. 5.

It is in this view of his undertaking that Mr. Gayarré has entered upon its execution. His first volume, an octavo of 400 pages, is employed in the discussion of the affairs of Louisiana from the earliest period to the year 1743—the expeditions of De Soto, Marquette, La Salle—the settlements of Iberville and Bienville, Crozat's Charter, the Western Company, arrival of the Jesuits in Louisiana, Indian wars, etc., etc.—the authorities for all of which are papers brought over from France by Mr. Magne, of New Orleans, private family papers, the work of Garcillasso de la Vega, and the history by Judge Martin. The second volume, we understand through another source, is nearly complete, and only delayed in anticipation of important information, which, it is thought, a search in the records of Spain will furnish, and without which, it appears to us, a history of Louisiana must necessarily be very imperfect. This volume will be brought down to 1803. The American history of Louisiana will occupy a third volume.*

There is one reason which Mr. Gayarré has given for adopting the French language, of which it would not be fair to omit a notice. He is employed upon characters who thought and spoke in that language,

* This volume, we are to judge, will be in English, since, as Mr. Gayarré infers, the Americans are only interested in this portion of the history of Louisiana. We are not to expect a translation of the first two volumes, for our author hates translations as he does prefaces: "Je hais les préfaces." He hints to us, however, that he will re-make the work in English hereafter.

and as far as possible he deems it necessary that these should be allowed to give accounts of the scenes and events of which they formed a part. He has, in the spirit of the skilful dramatist, thought it proper to retire himself behind the scenes, and let the characters on the stage divulge and develop the plot. A better idea of M. de Bienville, for example, can be formed from a single sentiment he may utter, than from any elaborate description. We would far rather, however, admit the justness of Mr. Gayarré's last apology, which he had almost forgotten, but which is very refined and chivalrous. The "fair Louisianians" will appreciate the passage: "Je dirai donc que, sachant que la plupart de nos Louisianaises ne lisent guère l'anglais, j'ai pensé qu'en écrivant dans la langue qui leur est familière, elles seraient tentées, par un sentiment de curiosité, de jeter les yeux sur les pages de cette histoire, et peut-être de les lire jusqu'au bout. Comment pouvais-je résister à cette considération? C'était pour mois plus qu'une raison. C'était une seduction.

We shall postpone an analysis of Mr. Gayarré's work until the completion of the other volumes, so as to take up the subject as a whole; our present object was but to introduce it in company with other authorities, and then to proceed, without delay, to the development of the subject which now occupies our mind.*

II. *Discoveries.*—The legends of De Soto, Marquette, and La Salle, shall not arrest our attention. These wild and daring passages belong rather to the romancer than the historian. Louis XIV. seized upon the proposal of Iberville, and addressed himself in earnest to a new and vast country which dazzled his ambition. Iberville, and Bienville his brother, founded a colony of Frenchmen on the shores of Louisiana in 1699. Hard was their struggle against nature,

* The above-named, Stoddard, Martin, Marbois, and Gayarré are all the historical works proper that we have upon Louisiana. The reader, if disposed to extend his investigations in every department, will find material enough within reach. We would name the memoirs of Charlevoix, Hennepin, and Tonti, upon which Mr. Sparks comments at large in his life of La Salle; also Vergennes' memoir, Dupratz' History of Louisiana, printed in 1758, and the files of the colonial gazettes. Of later days we have "Views of Louisiana," by Wm. Brackenridge, 1814, a work singularly accurate in its delineations of country and in its geographical particulars. Mr. Wm. Darby, formerly of this city, a distinguished geographer and practical man, has also published a work upon the physical character of the State, etc. Flints' "Valley of the Mississippi," will also be referred to with advantage. There is also a small volume upon Louisiana prepared by some one at the North, and now in the hands of the teachers and scholars of the Second Municipality. Mr. B. M. Norman, of New Orleans, published, not long since, a prospectus for a history of Louisiana, which, he informs us, it is his intention to prepare at leisure, and with great care and labor. The early documents of Louisiana, such as Charlevoix and others, are in Mr. French's library, and might be published as Louisiana Historical Collections. Seriously, a good English history of the State, brought down to the present time, is a great desideratum, but it is a work that few can execute, though many may attempt it. We dismiss our note by referring, as other sources of valuable information upon the subject before us, to the Louisiana Law Journal; to the 2d volume United States Land Office Papers; to Hall's Law Journal, where the discussions of Jefferson and Livingston on the Batture case are to be found; to the frequent decisions upon that case in the Reports of the Supreme Court of Louisiana, and particularly the great case of 1840, and the able arguments of Hunt, Maxureau, Soule, Preston, Peirce, Hoffman, Eustis, and Roselius, occupying, with the decisions of the court, upward of a thousand pages of matter; to Bullard & Curry's Digest of the Laws of Louisiana, and the debates on the adoption of the Constitution of 1846. We also refer to the Digest of the French Colonial Papers, which Mr. Forstall is now publishing in our journal. With such elements to work upon, we ought to have a Louisiana Historical Society, which, in fact, it is time for us to set about forming.

"the buzz and sting of the musquitoes, the hissing of snakes, the croaking of frogs, and the cries of the alligators, incessantly asserted that the lease the God of nature had given these reptiles had still a few centuries to run." This is the earliest era in the history of Louisiana.

III. *Crozat's Charter.*—In 1712, the king of France granted to M. Crozat a charter which covered the whole province of Louisiana. The aims of both parties were commercial, and included the whole of the Mississippi and its tributary bays, lakes, rivers, and bordering territories. M. Crozat for twenty years was endowed with exclusive privileges of trade in these countries, to work mines for gold and precious stones, with a large share of the results. The laws, edicts and ordinances of the realm, and the customs of Paris, are extended over Louisiana.

A word about this custom of Paris. France, in ancient times, was governed by the usages of the different provinces. These were unwritten, and of consequence conflicting. Charles V., in 1453, ordered them to be reduced to writing by commissioners. So far as the customs of Paris were concerned, the edict was not executed till 1510. These customs were embraced under sixteen heads and three hundred and sixty-two articles. The heads, are fiefs, quit-rents, movables and immovables, complaints, actions, prescription, redemption, arrests and executions, servitudes, community of goods, dower, guardianship, donation, testaments, successions, seizures and sales.* The customs of Paris extended to all the French colonies.†

The privileges allowed to Crozat were ample, but so vain are the calculations of men when employed upon novel enterprises, they satisfied not one of his greedy desires after wealth in the western world. The grant was surrendered, after five years, into the hands of the king, with the bitter complaint, that from the imbecility of the colony, the strength of the Indians, the presence of the British, and the sterility of the soil, it had proved of no kind of value whatever to him, but rather a ruinous expense.

IV. *The Western Company and Law.*—There settled in Paris about this period a man from Scotland, by the name of John Law. He was a singular character, a restless projector, a daring financier, high-minded and full of enterprise. This extraordinary man soon succeeded in gaining a ruling influence over the Duke of Orleans, then Regent of France, obtained a charter for a bank of $1,200,000, substituted paper for specie, and set the whole French nation mad with magnificent schemes of creating wealth as it were, by the wand of a magician. The Chancelor d'Aguesseau opposed this daring scheme with infinite peril to himself. To the royal bank of Law was attached a great commercial company, in which were to be concentered all the rights, privileges and possessions of all the trading companies then chartered in France. To this company was granted the great territory of Louisiana as it was surrendered up by Crozat. All Paris was in commotion, every man, woman and child became a financier; the boot-black and the collier of to-day were the grandees of to-morrow, and their splendid equipages dazzled the Parisian populace. The Royal Bank Stock went up to six hundred times its

* Louisiana Law Journal, pp. 15, 46. † Marbois' History of Louisiana.

par value, and dividends were rendered of two hundred per cent. The exhaustless mines near the Mississippi would reimburse any investment, it was said. In three years John Law was a bankrupt and a beggar. The government of France received a terrible shock; the deluded votaries of stock-jobbing were undone; the magnificent Western Company—the Mississippi scheme—became a by-word; the banking bubble, when inflated to the skies, had burst!

The charter of the Western Company was granted for twenty-five years. It was to have exclusive privileges of trade, and of the purchase of beaver skins for exportation. The company might make all Indian wars and treaties, work all mines, grant lands, construct fortifications, nominate governors and appoint inferior judges. Its vessels and crews to be of the French nation. The descendants of European parents born in Louisiana to be counted natural-born subjects of France. The inhabitants of Louisiana are exempted from taxes, and the company's goods from duty. The company engage to bring into Louisiana six thousand white persons and three thousand negroes. The issue of its stock is not limited in amount, but the shares are to be 500 francs each. The holder of fifty shares will be entitled to a vote in the affairs of the company, which are to be managed for the first two years by directors appointed by the king, and then by those appointed by the stockholders every third year.

There are different accounts of the condition of Louisiana during the fourteen years it remained under the Western Company, who enjoyed the privileges granted to Law. Dupratz and Charlevoix, quoted by Marbois, represent everything in the most deplorable condition; while Judge Martin, on a comparison of all the authorities, has concluded that these were the best years which Louisiana knew under the dominion of France, the white population having increased from 700 to 5,000, and the black from 20 to 2,000: "a vast number of handsome cottages lined both sides of the river at the German coast, the culture of rice, indigo and tobacco, and a regular administration of justice were provided for."

The Western Company, in despair of finding the gold they had anticipated in Louisiana, from mineral researches, turned their attention to agriculture. To promote their aims, large grants of the soil were made to powerful and wealthy individuals. To Law they granted a plot of twelve miles square. These grantees were to introduce settlers, but they succeeded to an extent far less than was anticipated, while sanguinary Indian wars desolated the colony. The company, in utter hopelessness, threw up their charter in April, 1732, which the king accepted, and declared the commerce of Louisiana thenceforward free.

V. *French Colonial Government.*—The commissioner Salmon took possession for the king. He found property to which the company had sold out their rights to the monarch amounting to two hundred and sixty-three livres: among this property was found 8,000 barrels of rice. The new government established consisted of a superior council, of the Governor-General of New France, the Governor and Commissary of Louisiana, the king's Lieutenant and the town Mayor of New Orleans, six Councilors, an Attorney-General, and a Clerk.*

* Martin's History of Louisiana.

A war broke out between Great Britain and France in 1760, whose influences were felt throughout all America. We know the particulars of this conflict, in which our own Washington had so conspicuous a part. Canada fell into the hands of the English at last, and rather than submit to the consequences, large numbers of its inhabitants sought a home in southern climes, fixing themselves on the Acadian coast of Louisiana, or taking their course westward of the river, to form the settlements of Attakapas, Opelousas and Avoyelles.

VI. *The Cession of Louisiana to Spain.*—France looked to Spain in her emergencies, and the Duke of Choiseul, the minister, entered into a family compact with the Spanish king, on the 15th August, 1760, and on the 3d November, 1762, a secret treaty between the two governments ceded the territory of Louisiana west of the Mississippi, with New Orleans, to Spain.

The bad system of government under which Louisiana long suffered, was attended with the consequences which were to be expected from it, and the sovereignty of the finest country in the world, says Marbois, a country which might have become another France, was of no use to the parent state, but was even a charge to her. After the experience of several years, the government wearied with a possession which its faults and ignorance had made burthensome, felt disposed to abandon it.

In 1763, Great Britain, France and Spain, entered upon the treaty of Paris, and terminated their difficulties. France abandoned to Britain, Nova Scotia, Acadia, Canada, Cape Breton, and all the islands and coasts of the gulf and river of St. Lawrence, the whole of Louisiana east of the Mississippi, except the town of New Orleans. The navigation of the Mississippi is declared free to the subjects of either nation. Thus did France, by her cession to Britain and Spain, divest herself of every foot of territory she held in North America.

The private treaty of cession to Spain was long held secret, and it was not until 1764 that D'Abadie was ordered by Louis XV. to announce the fact to the colony. D'Abadie was heart-broken at the intelligence, and died before he could communicate it. The duty devolved upon his successor, Aubry. A day of lamentation and sorrow had dawned upon the unfortunate Louisianians, and they heard their fate with settled gloom. A general meeting of the leading inhabitants of all the parishes assembled hastily in New Orleans, and entreaties were sent up to the throne that this painful treaty might not be made to go into effect. Louis XV. declared the cession irrevocable.

Ulloa.—Don Antonio de Ulloa arrived in Louisiana in 1766, appointed, as he professed, by Charles of Spain, to take possession of the province. His powers being demanded by the colonists, were not shown. This man was a scholar, a mathematician, and an astronomer, but was held in detestation by the Louisianians, and the more particularly that Aubry, the governor, exhibited towards him in appearance, the most humiliating obsequiousness. The Council, over the head of the governor, notified the Spaniard to produce his powers, or to depart the province. He determined on the

latter alternative, and in a few days made sail for Spain, amid the universal acclamations and rejoicings of the people.*

O'Reilly.—Scarcely had the colony breathing time before it was announced that a Spanish frigate and transports were upon the coast and approaching the town. Notwithstanding some threats of resistance on the part of the inhabitants, Don Alex. O'Reilly, commander of the Spanish forces, landed, and sent up a message to the governor, informing him that he was prepared to take possession of Louisiana; that he would not publish more of his orders until put in possession; and that any show of opposition would be signally punished. The inhabitants returned a deputation to the Spaniard, declaring their intention to abandon the colony, and requesting two years delay to effect the arrangement; O'Reilly consented with apparent cheerfulness, and with the warmest professions of regard. He soon after landed at the city and took formal possession in the name of the king.†

But this display of clemency and virtue was a dastard scheme to ingratiate himself into the confidence of the inhabitants, and then, by a single stroke, to bring down upon their heads the worst excesses of tyranny. On a shallow pretence some of the first citizens were arrested and thrown into prison. They were declared guilty of treason against a government which they had never acknowledged, and which could not in fact be considered as established. The prosecution was based upon the statute of Alphonso VII. (*Partidas, vii*, 1.), making it death to incite insurrection against the king. Villere was murdered in cold blood, Marquis and De Noyant, French officers, La Frenière the attorney-general, Milhet and Caresse, merchants, after the form of a trial were sentenced and executed. Posterity, says the historian Martin, the judge of men in power, will doom this act to public execration—and posterity, we add, has already regarded it as one of the blackest which it is the shame of history to record.

What was the precise character of the powers conferred upon O'Reilly has never yet been satisfactorily determined; and it is almost equally uncertain how far he construed these powers, and how far, in one particular, he exerted them—we mean in relation to the change of government. This question has within the last forty years been extensively discussed in Louisiana, both in the forum and out of it, and opposite opinions held.

The question was first opened in 1809, during that famous discussion of those remarkable men, Edward Livingston, of Louisiana, and

* In a statement by Governor Ulloa, of the events in Louisiana, a paper of 300 pages, now among the colonial records of Paris, Mr. Forstall conceives it clearly demonstrated that Aubry was at the bottom of the plot, the principal informer; and that the design of the colonists in the whole transaction was not for the purpose of remaining under a kingly dominion, but that the end was freedom. But this was Ulloa's statement, which, after all, ought not to be too much relied upon in the circumstances of the case.—*Com. Review*, vol. i. No. 4, p. 257.

† The trade of Louisiana at this time, 1769, was not inconsiderable. The following were a few of the items:—

Indigo, annually	$100,000
Rice, Peas, and Beans	4,000
Deer Skins	80,000
Lumber	50,000
Naval Stores	12,000
Tallow	4,000

The population of New Orleans was 3,190, and of Louisiana 13,538.

Thomas Jefferson, on the Batture case. Mr. Jefferson maintained that the proclamation of O'Reilly in November, 1769, introduced only a specific, and not a general change in the polity of the colony, that it neither abolished nor was it intended to abolish the whole system of French jurisprudence then in force. Mr. Livingston on the contrary held,*

1. That though the transfer of a country does not in general change its laws, yet this is not to be understood in relation to those fundamental laws which affect the perogative of the sovereign, which are of necessity changed by the cession, because the transfer releases the inhabitants from the allegiance due to the former sovereign, and makes them the subjects of another, toward whom it places them in the same relation as all his other subjects.

2. That O'Reilly's proclamation changed not only the form of government, but the administration of justice, and with it all the laws of the province.

3. That Spain had promulgated a code for the government of all her colonies, and this code declares that the laws it contains shall govern not only all the present colonies of Spain, but such as it may acquire hereafter. A great point in this celebrated controversy was to discover by what law the Batture was to be governed at the period when Louisiana passed into the hands of the United States;—by the law of France or by that of Spain.†

The king of France, in writing to D'Abadie at the period of the cession, conceded that the laws, forms and usages of the colony would be preserved, que les juges continuent, ainsi que le conseil superieur à rendre la justice, suivant les lois, formes et usages de la colonie; but this does not appear to have been inserted in the treaty of cession to be found in the senate document for 1837. O'Reilly, as soon as he was at ease in his government, made a proclamation to the people. He declared himself empowered by the king's letters patent, issued at Aranjuez, to establish that form of government, dependence, and subordination, which should accord with the good of his service and the happiness of his subjects in the colony. He therefore proceeded,

1. To establish a cabildo or city council for the administration of justice, etc., with six perpetual regidors who shall elect alcaldes or judges, etc., etc.

2. To prepare an abstract of the Spanish laws, in the form of a code, which should have effect until a more general knowledge of the Spanish tongue would admit of the introduction of the whole body of that law. This code to be applied unless the pleasure of the king of Spain be expressed to the contrary. The code occupies some sixty closely printed pages, and may be found in the second number of the Louisiana Law Journal, a work which, for the sake of sound jurisprudence, we wish could have met with a far better and more deserving destiny.

Whatever may have been the powers of O'Reilly, we think it on the whole clear that the laws of Spain were gradually extended by him over Louisiana, and afterward by his successors, so that, in the end, but little traces of French legislation remained. La Frenière and

* Hall's Law Journal, vol. v. † Law Journal, No. iv., p. 89.

Doucet, the only French lawyers at the time, had been dispatched by O'Reilly, who acknowledges himself, by his proclamation, the want of advocates in the colony. The inhabitants were compelled, through necessity, to apply for legal advice to the Spanish lawyers that had accompanied the expedition." The Supreme Court of Louisiana have also, on several occasions, arrived at the same conclusion. In Beard *vs.* Poydras, 4 *Martin's Reports*, Derbigny, J. said, this publication (O'Reilly proclamation), followed from that moment by an uninterrupted observance of the Spanish law, has been received as an introduction of the Spanish code in all its parts, and must be considered as having repealed the laws formerly prevailing in Louisiana. The court afterward, in Malpica, *vs.* McKown, 1 *Louisiana Reports*, p. 255, declared that the laws of Spain having been in force in Louisiana need not be proved as facts. The laws of Spain, said Judge Martin, when he had laid aside the gown and taken up the pen as the historian, became the sole guide of the tribunals in their decisions. The transition was not perceived before it became complete, and very little inconvenience resulted from it.

It is unnecessary to analyze minutely the government of Louisiana at this period. The inhabitants were compelled to submit with the best grace when abandoned by France, and when resistance would have been fruitless. Excepting a few acts of tyranny, O'Reilly's government was not intolerable. He displayed, on some occasions, higher and better principles, but had given such offence in general, that on returning to Spain, he was prohibited from appearing at court. Louisiana lost largely during this administration, by the emigration of numbers of her best citizens.

To exhibit the liberality of the Spanish colonial policy, it may be remarked, that in 1778, Mercier's Law deux mille quatre cent quarante was prohibited from being read in Louisiana, and also Robertson's History of America, for which the king thought he had just reason.

When the American Revolution, with its deeds of high daring and patriotism, had progressed, and Spain, in an endeavor to mediate, had failed, the Catholic king prepared himself for war. Galvez, governor of Louisiana, with the first intelligence, threw himself upon the British garrison at Baton Rouge, and captured it. An American minister was sent to Madrid to negotiate a favorable treaty for his countrymen, and to obtain for them, if possible, the free navigation of the Mississippi to the sea. The French minister had previously intimated that the exclusive right to the navigation of that river would be a *sine qua non* on the part of Spain, and, pressed by the exigencies of affairs, Congress was at one time (1782) disposed to make the concession, and instructed its minister to do so, if a favorable treaty could in this way be negotiated.*

Spanish Treaty of 1783.—The treaties between Great Britain, France, Spain, and the United States, concluded in 1783, opened the navigation of the Mississippi without restrictions to the United States; ceded the Floridas to Spain, and bounded the possessions of the two countries by a line eastward of the 31° parallel on the Mississippi to the Apalachicola river, through the middle of that river to its junction

* Marbois.

with the Flint, on the Flint to the head of St. Mary's river, down the St. Mary's river to the Atlantic. These treaties were soon followed by embarrassing disputes, in which the Spaniards laid claim to a large tract of country, and an exclusive right to the navigation of that portion of the Mississippi which passed through their territories, against both of which claims the United States protested.

Spanish Scheme for dividing the Union.—It may be remarked that very little if any intercourse was tolerated by the Spaniards, through the Mississippi with the people of the United States. Any attempts to navigate the river, or to introduce merchandise into New Orleans by boats, were resisted, and the property seized. About the year 1787, General Wilkinson, a revolutionary officer, conceived the design of making a settlement of American families in Louisiana, for which he expected to receive some commercial favors from the Spaniards. He descended the river to New Orleans with a small adventure of tobacco and flour, etc., and by an artifice, so worked upon the fears of Miro the governor, that he was disposed to listen to the proposal of opening a traffic with the people of the Western States. Miro flattered himself that a division might in this way be ensured of the States of the American Union, and those westward of the Alleghany mountains attached to the interests of Spain. His suggestions were favorably received at Madrid, and the court, according to Marbois, consented, in 1788, to cede the free navigation of the Mississippi to the States founded on the left bank of that river, on the condition that they determined to form an empire distinct from that of the Atlantic States. The people of these States, however, having ceased to feel the grievances they suffered under the articles of American confederation, and having passed under the admirable federal constitution of 1789, forgot their dissensions, and treated every proposition of the Spaniards with contempt.

Freedom of the Mississippi.—In 1790, it was again attempted to procure from Spain the navigation of the Mississippi for the United States, also the island on which New Orleans is situated, and the Floridas. For these concessions Spain was to be guarantied the rest of her possessions in the difficulties which threatened her with England. The proposition was not assented to, but five years after the American plenipotentiaries signed at St. Lorenzo a treaty stipulation for the freedom of the river to their countrymen, and a freedom to use for ten years the city of New Orleans as a depot for their merchandise.

Carondolet's Plot.—Spain had no sooner signed the treaty than she began to display the utmost regret for her liberality. Her alliance with France, and the position of the United States, determined her by all means to hold on to the territory in Upper Louisiana, which she had agreed to cede. In vain were officers sent on the part of the United States to take possession of the posts and settlements. In vain did the settlers themselves protest against the delay. A magnificent scheme had been planned, and was in progress, the design of which was to prevent Louisiana forever from falling into the hands of the American government. The Baron de Carondolet endeavored to sound General Wilkinson on the subject, and to bring him over to the plan by flatteries and by the most liberal offers.

Wilkinson dismissed the messenger with an expression of views little favorable to the success of the project which was opened to him. We shall not on this occasion indulge ourselves with any reflections on the course and character of this officer, or pronounce any opinion as to the extent of his innocence or blame in these transactions.*

The face of European affairs in May, 1798, influenced the American people to put on their armor. Washington was again appointed to the head of the army; and the difficulties with regard to Louisiana, and consequent losses to the government, forced upon all minds the absolute necessity for the acquisition of New Orleans, whatever might be the hazard.

Schemes for the possession of Louisiana.—Louisiana indeed occupied an unenviable position at this time. She had been abandoned by the French in an evil hour, and contrary to her strongest remonstrances. Hardly had the cession been made, however, when it came to be regarded in France with a mortification and regret which increased the more the subject was regarded. So strong was this feeling that, on the breaking out of hostilities with the Spaniards, Mr. Genet, the young and rash minister from France to the United States, employed himself immediately after his arrival in devising and carrying out a comprehensive scheme for the invasion of Louisiana, with troops and arms procured in the United States. In vain did General Washington oppose the duties of neutrality, and the principles of our government. Mr. Genet appealed from the president to the people, and though his course was condemned by the French government, the Committee of Public Safety immediately instructed Mr. Barthelemy, the Ambassador of the French republic to demand from Spain the restoration of Louisiana. In other respects was the position of Louisiana remarkable. The United States had been long regarding with a jealous eye the existence of a territory in the hands of a foreign power, capable of influencing, and of determining and controling the destiny of the immense regions of country embraced in the Mississippi valley. A plot had been laid too by an American citizen, Blount, then Governor of Tennessee, the object of which was to throw down upon Louisiana, during the wars between England and Spain, in 1797, through the medium of the western waters, large numbers of British troops from Canada. The plot was discovered, Blount degraded by the Senate, and the English Government exonerated from the charge of any knowledge of his proceedings.

The eyes of Spain were not closed to the difficulties of her position; she could not be heedless of the "warnings" so often repeated, and so full of meaning. Bonaparte had by this time assumed the reins of government, and he cherished the idea of bringing back to the parent country a province which he conceived had been unnaturally severed from her. He conceived too that it was possible by this means to restore the ascendency which France had in former periods occupied in America. The consul entered at once upon

* We have not within reach the memoirs of Wilkinson. In the difficulties of his time, his conduct was often open to mistrust. The question is a delicate one, but Congress, after a hearing, dismissed the charges that were brought against him. On another occasion we shall refer to the subject.

negotiations, and worked upon the court of Madrid by his representations "that Louisiana restored to France would be a bulwark for Mexico, and a security for the tranquillity of the Gulf."

VII.—*Spanish Treaty of Cession*—On the first of October, 1800, was concluded, between the Catholic King and French Consul, the treaty of Ildefonso, the third article of which was that His Catholic Majesty promises and engages to retrocede to the French republic, six months after the full and entire execution of the conditions therein stipulated in relation to the Duke of Parma, the colony and province of Louisiana, with the same extent that it had in the hands of Spain, and that it had when France possessed it, and such as it should be after the treaties subsequently entered into between Spain and the other powers. The stipulation in relation to the Duke of Parma was, that he should be put into possession of Tuscany. Another stipulation in the treaty provided for a preference to Spain, in the event of Louisiana passing again out of the hands of France.

French Government.—Bonaparte took immediate steps to enter upon his new possession, to establish a government over it, and to promote by judicious steps the health of its capital city. General Victor was appointed commissioner for accepting the transfer. Laussat, the colonial prefect, arrived in Louisiana, and issued a proclamation denouncing the previous separation of the province from France as the fruit of a corrupt government, an ignominious war, and dishonorable peace. "The French still remembered that a portion of the inhabitants of Louisiana were their descendants, with the same blood running in their veins; but as soon as France, by a prodigious succession of triumphs in the late revolution, had recovered her own freedom and glory she turned her eyes toward Louisiana, the retrocession of which signalized her first peace." The Louisianians prepared an address in reply, in which, after a compliment to their late governors, they declared that the proclamation had filled the people with gratitude for its parental care, and that they already felt the happiness of their union with the French republic. The happy selection of some of her most virtuous citizens to govern them, and her choicest troops to protect them were sure pledges of their future happiness and prosperity. They offered in return their love and obedience, and would endeavor to prove themselves worthy of the title of French citizens."*

Everything seemed now prepared for the re-establishment of French dominion in Louisiana. The Spanish commissioners had issued their proclamation, announcing the cession, the good will of their sovereign toward the colonists, his ardent desires that the privileges of the clergy and of the people, and the laws of the province as then administered, would be preserved and perpetuated by the king of France, and, according to Martin, every one was ready

* We have followed Martin, but there is another version to be found in the pages of Marbois—"Every one will be astonished (*Hist. Louis.*, p. 207) to learn that a people of French descent have received, without emotion, and without any apparent interest, a French magistrate, who comes to us accompanied by his young and beautiful bride, and preceded by the public esteem. Nothing has been able to diminish the alarm which his mission causes. His proclamations have been heard by some with sadness, and by the greater part of the inhabitants with the same indifference as the beat of the drum is listened to which announces the escape of a slave, or a sale at auction.

to mount the tri-colored cockade when a vessel from Bordeaux arrived at the Levee, announcing that Louisiana had become a part of the United States, by an act of Napoleon Bonaparte. But we are anticipating.

Uneasiness of the American people.—As soon as it became known in the United States that France had again come into possession of her old province, the greatest anxiety and uneasiness was manifested on every hand. The West was suddenly in a flame. New Orleans was about to escape, and with one deep and pervading sentiment they exclaimed, "The Mississippi is ours. Its mouth is the only issue which nature has given to our waters. If our liberty be disputed nothing shall prevent our taking forcible possession. If Congress refuses us effectual protection, we shall adopt the measures which our safety requires. No protection, no allegiance!" It was everywhere taken for granted that France would entirely exclude American citizens from the province, and Congress itself, and the president, Mr. Jefferson, shared in the general uneasiness.*

Mr. Monroe was dispatched to Paris. Mr. Livingston, the minister there, had already displayed some temper upon the subject, and had advised his government to extreme measures. Hasten to France, said Mr. Jefferson to Mr. Monroe, if we cannot by a purchase of the country ensure to ourselves a perpetual peace and friendship with all nations, then, as war cannot be far distant, it behooves us immediately to prepare for it. We saw, said a memorial of the Territory of Mississippi, in January 1803, to Congress—we saw our trade prospering, our property rising in value, and we felicitated ourselves. A recent order of the government of Louisiana prohibiting intercourse between the Louisianians and Americans has embarrassed our trade, and breathes a spirit of enmity to the United States. Mr. Monroe was directed to offer two millions of dollars for the City of New Orleans, and Mr. Rost, of Pennsylvania, proposed in the Senate to place five millions of dollars at the disposition of the president, and to raise fifty thousand men to take possession of Louisiana by force.

French views of Louisiana.—Napoleon was informed of all of this. He saw a thick cloud impending over France and another fifteen years' war with England, as he expressed it, on the eve of breaking out. He pondered deeply upon the crisis, and summoned two of his ministers to his side with the language with which we opened our article. With these he consulted, and was advised to opposite measures. We should not hesitate, said one, to make a sacrifice of that which is slipping from us. The efforts of France to form colonies in America have always been fruitless. Commercial establishments are better than colonies. "We must retain Louisiana," said the other; "*there does not exist on the face of the globe* a single port, a single city susceptible of becoming as important as New Orleans. All the productions of the West Indies suit Louisiana. If we must abandon St. Domingo, Louisiana will take its place. Attempts have been made there to introduce the vine, the olive and the mulberry tree, and these experiments have but too well succeeded. If the colony should become free, Provence and our vineyards must prepare for a fearful competition with a country new and of bound-

* Marbois' Hist. Louis., p. 221.

less extent." Napoleon yielded to the former opinion, and Barbé Marbois opened negotiations at once.

French and American Negotiations.—Mr. Monroe arrived in France. Mr. Livingston met him with the expression—"I wish that the resolution offered by Mr. Rost in the Senate had been adopted. Only force can give us New Orleans." Mr. Livingston had no confidence in the overtures of M. de Marbois. The three negotiators met together. They deliberated. The question came before them in every possible point of view, and the terms of a treaty sufficiently liberal but indefinite in an important particular, was agreed upon at last, and presented to the First Consul, who approved it on the spot, with the remarkable words—"Let the Louisianians know that we separate ourselves from them with regret, that we stipulate in their favor everything that they can desire; and let them, hereafter, happy in their independence, recollect that they have been Frenchmen, and that France in ceding them has secured for them advantages which they could not have obtained from any European power!"

VIII. *Purchase of Louisiana by the Americans.*—The treaty of Paris, 13th April, 1803, ceded to the United States forever and in full sovereignty, the province of Louisiana, with all its rights and appurtenances in full, and in the same manner as they had been acquired by France from the Catholic King. Eight stipulations exist in the treaty. The first and second provided for the full surrender of the province, the third for its privileges under the Constitution of the United States, the seventh for privileges of trade to the province for twelve years to French and Spanish vessels. The United States agreed to pay sixty millions of francs and to discharge certain claims of their citizens on France.

Ceremonies of Delivery.—No sooner had the treaty of Paris been signed than a new difficulty arose. The king of Spain protested against the transfer, and his minister at Washington was authorized to declare that no alienation of the territory by France could be conceived valid after her express promise never to alienate to other than Spain. Bonaparte had appointed Laussat to receive the territory from the Spanish government and deliver it over to the Americans. The Spanish flag descended from its staff in the public square at New Orleans, and the tri-colored one of the French republic ascended in its stead. The banner of the French republic, said Mr. Laussat, now displayed, and the sound of her cannon announce the return of French dominion; but it is only for an instant. I am here to deliver possession of the colony to the United States. Wilkinson and Claiborne appeared in New Orleans on the part of the American government. On the 20th December the American eagle occupied the staff where the tri-colored flag had waved for twenty days, and amid the roar of cannon and the shouts of the citizens, the province passed forever from its allegiance to France. A group of the citizens of the United States, says Martin, who stood on a corner of the square, waved their hats in token of respect for their country's flag, and a few of them greeted it with their voices. No emotion was manifested by any other part of the crowd. The colonists did not appear to be conscious that they were reaching the *Latium sedes ubi fata quietas ostendunt.* Marbois relates a beautiful incident

here, strikingly illustrative of the enthusiastic patriotism of the French. When the French colors were lowered and received in the arms of the French who had guarded them, their regrets were openly expressed, and to render a last homage to this token, which was no longer that of the sovereignty of the country, the sergeant-major wrapped it round him as a scarf, and after traversing the city, proceeded toward the house of the French Commissioner. The little troop accompanied him; they were saluted in passing before the lines of the Americans, who presented arms to them, and they finally delivered the banner into the hands of Laussat.*

Ambiguity in the Treaty.—The treaty of cession left the boundaries of Louisiana in some ambiguity in consequence of the great difficulty of coming to correct conclusions as to where the province might be conceived to terminate on the east and west and northwest. Marbois predicted that difficulties would arise out of the ambiguity, and warned the other negotiators; but no method of obviating them could present itself. The fear of opposition on the part of Spain prevented the court of Madrid from being consulted; and indeed the pressing exigencies of the time did not admit of delay for such consultation. Napoleon thought the ambiguity proper enough, and that it would have been good policy to have placed one in that part of the treaty, whether it existed there or not. The prediction of M. de Marbois was verified. We all recollect the embarrassing questions which were agitated in the diplomatic correspondence of Mr. Adams and Don Louis de Onis in 1819, on this very subject of conflicting American and Spanish boundaries, and the resulting treaty which transferred to us Florida, and fixed the Sabine as our western boundary. The course of Mr. Adams in this particular has been so much mixed up with politics, that we decline discussing it.

Opposition of Spain.—The Spanish court were not informed of the proceedings in relation to Louisiana until the treaty was concluded, which, as we remarked before, gave great and perhaps just offence. For upward of a year it was regarded with sullen dissatisfaction; and it was not until February, 1804, that the Spanish minister gave notice to Mr. Pinckney that the benevolence and friendship of Spain toward the United States, had overcome her opposition.

Action of Congress.—In the mean while all was not quieted at home. Mr. Jefferson called together Congress earlier than usual, and submitted the compact for their confirmation. All the bitterness of party was at once enkindled. It was denied in the Senate that the Constitution permitted the acquisition of foreign territory, and more particularly without the consent of its inhabitants. It was denied in the House that the indemnity was at all reasonable or just. But the administration was in too powerful a majority to render opposition other than futile in the extreme.

IX. *Territorial Government of Louisiana.*—The first act of Governor Claiborne was to settle the judiciary system of the territory, which he did by establishing a court of pleas, consisting of seven justices.

The act of Congress, 20th March, 1804, established the territorial

* Marbois' History of Louisiana, p. 335.

government. Louisiana was divided into two sections, of which that which now constitutes the State of the same name was to be known as the Territory of Orleans. The act provided for a Governor, appointed for three years, unless sooner removed by the President; a Secretary for four years; a Legislative Council of thirteen freeholders; a Judiciary, according to the regulations of the Legislative Council, but to be appointed by the President.

The period which elapsed between the act of Congress of 1804 and the one of March 2d, 1805, which set up another territorial government of Louisiana, was one of dissatisfaction and uneasiness to the people of that section. They complained of the governor, that he was unacquainted with their language, their laws and their interests, that he exhibited favor only to those of his own country, that the English language was attempted to be set up in all judicial proceedings, that the division of the country postponed almost indefinitely the prospect of its becoming a State, and that it suffered greatly from the want of a circulating medium. The citizens held a meeting in the city, and unanimously resolved upon memorializing Congress in relation to their grievances. The Council, as established in the mean while, passed several acts bearing upon the proper organization of the territory, dividing it into twelve counties, with inferior courts in each, instituting the modes of procedure, defining crimes, etc., according to the common law, chartering the city, and establishing (but only on paper) a university. The Council also appointed a committee to prepare a Civil and Criminal Code, with the aid of two professional gentlemen, whose remuneration was fixed by law.

Territorial Government of 1805.—The effect of the dissatisfaction in New Orleans produced the territorial act of 1805, by which Congress set up a government in Louisiana similar to that of the Mississippi Territory, and provided for its admission into the Union as a State as soon as 60,000 inhabitants could be afforded. This act gave to the people the election of a Legislature, and to the Legislature the election of a Legislative Council, or upper house. In these the property qualification was insisted on. The first acts of this new legislative body were the adoption of the Black Code, or *Code Noir*, for the government of slaves, and the appointment of two lawyers, Messrs. Lislet and Brown, to prepare a Civil Code, based upon the former laws of the country.

Burr's Plot.—Having settled these points, Louisiana prepared to meet the position of things which was forced upon her in relation to Spain, and in the anxieties which arose in relation to boundaries, and the opposing claims of the two nations, it is likely that hostilities would have occurred, had not the intimation of a vast scheme on foot for the separation of the western country from the Union at the head of which, it was said, was Col. Burr, influenced Gen. Wilkinson and the Americans to compromise matters with the Spaniards, and concentrate everything to meet the anticipated danger. The reports which reached Louisiana each day in relation to this plot were alarming; military preparations were being urged upon all sides, and Burr himself, after a reward offered for his arrest, was taken at Fort Stoddard, and conveyed to Richmond.

Old Civil Code of 1808.—Messrs. Moreau Lislet and Brown re-

ported to the Legislature of 1808 a civil code for the government of the territory, which was adopted, and is known as the old Civil Code. It purported to be a digest of the civil laws then in force, with such alterations and amendments as were necessary to the present form of government. The compilers did not refer solely to the Spanish colonial law, the Partidas and the Recopilacion, but drew largely upon the Code Napoleon, the *projét* of which, inferior in many respects to the Code itself, having only at that time come to hand. This digest, a volume of 500 pages, was printed in French and English, divided into three books on persons, on things, on the acquisition of things; including subdivisions of titles, chapters and articles. It forms the basis of the present Civil Code of Louisiana, and is to a large extent identical with it. The digest repealed only all laws irreconcilable with it, and therefore did not set up a new and independent system of jurisprudence, which Judge Martin much regrets, but only furnishes an "incomplete digest of existing statutes, which still retained their empire, and threw out thus a decoy instead of a beacon to the people."

Imperfections of the Law.—The jurisprudence in Louisiana at this period presented a singular jumble of various and in many respects opposing systems, scarcely, if at all, harmonized in their important particulars, or perhaps understood by legislators, lawyers or people. The Fuero Viejo, Fuero Juezgo, Partidas, Recopilaciones, Leyes de las Indias, Accordados and Royal Schedules, being unrepealed, and of course in effect, were yet not to be found complete in a single library; and of some of the laws, according to Martin, there was not a copy in the territory. The Spanish commentators upon these were relied upon, the Roman civil law, and the works of Pothier, D'Aguesseau, Dumoulin, etc. The trial by jury, too, was lamentably deficient, and even ridiculous; the arguments of counsel on one side or the other being in a language which the jurors did not understand.

Spanish Difficulties.—The conflicting claims of the United States and Spain to the strip of territory east of the Mississippi river, and south of the parallel 31° to the Perdido river, being upward of two hundred and fifty miles in length and fifty in breadth, were brought to something like a crisis in 1810, by the inhabitants seizing upon the Spanish post at Baton Rouge, holding a convention at St. Francisville, declaring their independence and setting up a constitution; and by a proclamation of the President of the United States, taking possession of the territory. The event was peaceable, and the parishes of Feliciana, East Baton Rouge, St. Helena, St. Tammany, Biloxi and Pascagoula, were soon after established.

On the 11th February, 1811, an act of Congress was passed to enable the inhabitants of Louisiana to form a constitution and state government, if the same should be the desire of the people, signified by the calling of a convention. This body being called, assembled in November, at New Orleans, and prepared, and unanimously signed a constitution, based upon that of Kentucky, on the 22d of January, 1812.

X. STATE OF LOUISIANA.—The constitution of 1812 remained the organic law of the State until the present year, but as it is now su-

perseded we shall defer any comments upon its provisions until, in future sheets of our article, it will be appropriate to compare and contrast the two systems of law. We also postpone to the same place the consideration of the judiciary system at that time established.

War of 1812.—The share which Louisiana took in the English and American war of 1812, though signalized in history, is so familiar that it will detain us but a moment. Wilkinson took possession of the country west of the Perdido river, then in the occupation of Spain. The English colonel, Nichols, arrived at Pensacola, and made proclamation to all Englishmen, Spaniards and Frenchmen, to join his standard and resist the encroachments of the United States. To the people of Kentucky this ridiculous officer proposed similar terms. To the privateer Lafitte and his followers, at Barrataria, he was most prodigal in his offers. The overtures, says Marbois, were rejected with indignation, and the men who saw no degradation in enriching themselves by plunder had a horror of treason. The course of General Jackson, in relation to the Spaniards and English at Pensacola, is familiar to all.

Battle of Orleans.—An attack upon New Orleans was every moment expected, the most extraordinary preparations were being made to raise forces, and provide fortifications and armaments to meet the impending danger. The city was all excitement. "The people were preparing for battle as if for a party of pleasure, says the historian; the streets resounded with martial airs, the several corps of militia were constantly exercising; every bosom glowed with the feelings of national honor." The West was pouring down upon the city—martial law was proclaimed.* The battle of New Orleans, of 8th January, 1815, was fought and won to the high honor of the American people, and the lasting laurels of the great man who commanded, and who, whatever his faults, is becoming every day more and more honored in the memory of his grateful and admiring countrymen.

Rapid advances of Louisiana.—The history of Louisiana, since she has become a State and been incorporated in the Federal Union, has yet to be written. The uninterrupted prevalence of peace in our country takes away from this chapter those lively features which characterize anterior periods. The records of revolution, of changing dynasties, of deeds of arms and high renown, are not presented here, and, perhaps, to the avidity of general readers, the whole is a hopeless blank. But to those seeking higher views of individual good and national destiny, the onward march of the arts of peace, the extraordinary development of industrial resources, the unmatched augmentation of population and wealth, the erection of an opulent State, with laws, government, and order, in a former French and

* General Jackson ordered—

1. Every individual entering the city shall report himself at the attorney-general's office, and on failure be arrested and held for examination.
2. None shall be permitted to leave the city or bayou St. John without such a passport, or that of the commodore.
3. No vessel, boat, or craft shall leave the city or bayou St. John without such a passport or that of the commodore.
4. The lamps in the city to be extinguished at nine o'clock, after which every person found in the streets, or out of his usual place of residence, without a pass or the countersign, to be apprehended as a spy and held for examination.

Spanish province are events worthy of the highest efforts of the historian, replete with interest, and deserving of careful study. The mock heroic, Quixotic chivalry which would brush away, as if the phantom of a dream, the whole of this beautiful prospect by the desolating and withering arm of war, to accomplish ends which the common sense and humanity of mankind have decreed shall be accomplished otherwise, if at all, is not madness only, but the quintessence and refinement of idiocy and malignity, mind depraved and corrupted, or, as the common law writers express it "instigated of the devil"—but we forbear. Let us have war only, in God's name, in that remote and scarcely to be anticipated exigency when our forbearance has been insulted and ceases to be a virtue, and when all that is holy and honorable in us shall rise up in rebellion and bid us—"If you have nature in you bear it not."

In the remaining sheets of our article we shall be confined almost wholly to the examination of the constitutional and legal history of the State, not so much, perhaps, for the advantage of its inhabitants as for those abroad, who, we believe, are not yet clearly informed upon the subject. In fact we have it on the authority of Judge Porter, a distinguished jurist of our sister State, that he has discovered, in Alabama especially, a prevailing opinion that the law of Louisiana is alone the *corpus juris civilis*, and that even the erudite author of Law Studies has committed the same error.*

Code Noir, or Black Code.—We have alluded to the old Civil Code of 1808, and expressed our views upon it. This, with the exception of the Digest of O'Reilly, and the code for the government of the blacks, or Code Noir, was the first codified body of laws in Louisiana. The Black Code was adopted in 1806, and has received frequent amendments almost up to the present day. Most of the harshness of its original character has been taken away, and although in some points still defective and requiring legislative reform, we will venture to say, that in no slave State can there be found a system of law for the government of this class, more fair, equitable and humane, and tenderly regardful of the rights of those whom nature has decreed shall be inferior, subservient and ruled. If sick and disabled, or old, the act of 1806 provides that they shall be maintained by their owners, under a penalty. If well and not amply supported, a justice shall supply the deficiency at the cost of the master. But these are vain laws; for who has ever heard, except, perhaps, a northern abolitionist, of a negro suffering from old age or want? The 16th and 17th sections of the same act provide even for the most minute injuries inflicted upon slaves beyond moderate and reasonable chastisement. Their hours of rest and meals, and their clothing are regulated; Sundays are to be theirs; if old or disabled, they cannot be sold from their families, and the mother cannot be separated from her young children. The Code Noir applies also to free negroes. This class are especially favored. They have served the State on some occasions in time of peril, and have been rewarded. It was only the other day that the present legislature granted a pension to two veterans of this class. Mr. Marigny, who stood up in the State Convention of 1845 for the rights of these people, went back, in

* Commercial Review, vol. i. No. iv., p. 378.

memory, to the good old days "when slaves were allowed to assemble and enjoy themselves every Sunday in such games as they pleased;" which was justified by the king's commissioner, by reading to Jean Paul Larusse, a passage of Sacred History, where it was laid down that St. Madelline, tired and weary from six days' labor, applied to the Lord for the privilege of dancing on Sunday, and he granted it. It would appear that our Town Council now are not quite so accommodating! Mr. Marigny's speech is full of allusions to the public services of the free blacks.*

New Civil Code of 1825.—In 1825 the new Civil Code prepared by order of the Legislature, was enforced in Louisiana. Experience had shown, says the Law Journal, that the old Civil Code had omitted to provide for cases of frequent occurrence, and that some of its provisions, borrowed chiefly from the Spanish law, were not in harmony with the spirit of the time, and required amendment. Messrs. Livingston, Derbigny, and Moreau Lislet, were charged with the performance of this duty, and it would certainly have been difficult to select three individuals more competent. This code is still in force, with the amendments to it, and with a vast number of decisions of the court, explaining and applying it. We have read in connection with it, a little book published in 1840, by Mr. Eyma, examining the doctrines of succession by the lights of foreign jurists; and it is understood that a new edition of the Code, with notes by that able lawyer Mr. Mazureau, taken from the experience of a long and distinguished practice at the bar, will soon be presented to the public.† The Civil Code is embraced in a volume of some 600 pages, published in French and English. It is also said to be the intention of the present Legislature to modify and change the Code in many important particulars, in order to suit the state of things under the new Constitution. This is a delicate undertaking, and will be no doubt effected, with a full sense of its responsibility. We are always suspicious of change, though admitting the present Code deficient in many particulars. The Supreme Court declared in Flower *v.* Griffith, that it does not repeal such parts of the old Code as are not retained in it; and in Ellis *v.* Prevost, 13 Louisiana Reports, 237, expressed broadly their opinion of the work:—"Our Codes were prepared by lawyers, who mixed with the positive legislation definitions seldom accurate, and points of doctrine always unnecessary: from this circumstance, as well as from the inherent difficulty of the subject, the positive provisions of our Code are often at variance with the theoretical part, which it was intended to elucidate.

The Code of Practice.—The present Code of Practice went into operation in September, 1825, and repeals all former rules of practice. With reference to these former rules, it may be well to observe that they are to be found in the acts of Assembly, 1805 and 1813, 2 Martin's Digest, and in the pleadings of the French and Spanish Lawyers. particularly in the Curia Felipica, a work in two volumes, by Juan de Hevia Bolanos, an edition of which, printed at Madrid in 1825, is before us. The first volume is divided into five parts, and

* Reports of Convention, p. 321.

† We have heard it rumored that Judge Martin and Mr. Greiner have in preparation a new edition of the Code.

the second into three, discussing minutely the organization of courts, and conduction of suits. Of the present Code of Practice some complaint is made. It was constructed by the same jurists as the Civil Code. As a system of pleading, it is lamentably deficient, in the opinion of almost all parties; and frequent amendments have been made to it without altogether curing the evil. Composed, says the Law Journal, without sufficient knowledge of the theoretical principles of practice, and with very inadequate acquaintance with the practical difficulties which occur in the administration of the law, it has been the source of much error and embarrassment. There have been several editions of this code, a small volume in itself, published, with copious references to adjudged cases, and a new one seems now to be required by the bar, with such additions and amendments as are required to meet the advance of legislation in the State.

The Roman, French, and Spanish law was abolished in Louisiana in 1828. The Supreme Court explained the act in Bell's case, 13 L. R. 198, by declaring that it applied only to the positive, written or Spanish laws of those nations and of this State, which opinion has been somewhat criticised.*

Jurisprudence of Louisiana.—We are naturally led to ask the particular complexion of the two codes we have been discussing, and to what extent they are felt in the infinite variety of cases which arise in the State? How far are the civil and the common law admitted in their elements? Do the codes constitute the whole body of the laws of Louisiana, or how much of them? We shall indulge a few remarks here.

In former pages it was shown how multifarious are the sources of the laws of Louisiana. Rome, Spain, and France have all contributed from their best repositories to the completion of her system, and the most distinguished minds which have been felt in the jurisprudence of Europe are acknowledged here with scarcely less authority. Any one who has studied the Reports of the Supreme Court of the State, will have discovered this upon almost every page. The celebrated Batture case is most strongly in point, a case which called into action all the energies, and developed all the resources of the bar, and was argued and adjudged almost upon the same principles, and in the same manner as it would have been in a court sitting upon the banks of the Tiber, at Madrid, or in Paris. The laws of Louisiana have but little in common with those of England, except so far as enlightened reason and experience may have brought two great systems, the civil and the common law, to similar results. In many respects the principles of correct jurisprudence are universal, and the jealousy which has existed between the common and civil lawyers has little to sustain it that is at all commendable. Both are great and wonderful systems which they cherish; both have upon their sides a venerated antiquity, and the influences of names so high and holy that we dare not approach their presence without some emotions of awe. Both systems have their perfections and their deficiencies, their points of contrast favorable and unfavorable; and it has appeared to us, the more we have reflected, that, upon the soil of Louisiana, more than any place else in the whole world, is to be found the spot where the problem of jurisprudence can be solved with most advantage, and

* Louisiana Law Journal, vol. i. No. iv., p. 150.

where can be elaborated from the joint wisdom and perfection of the common and the civil law, a new and a better system than either, and one which cannot but shed a broad influence upon the whole body of American law. We see this work already going on, and it only needs a careful hand and an enlightened judgment to complete it ultimately by a process so gradual as almost to be unfelt. Even now we have the common law pure and unmixed in the whole of our criminal proceedings, and the trial by jury and the *Habeas Corpus*, those bulwarks of liberty, have lost nothing by their juxta-position with Roman institutes. In the rules of evidence, too, we follow the wise principles of the common law, and commercial jurisprudence in Louisiana is what it is with slight modifications all over the Union and in England, and what it should be all the world over; for, as Lord Mansfield expressed it, "among all men and in all times the laws of commerce are one and immutable." The work of amalgamation must go on with the elements at work which are presented in the State. We have among us able civil lawyers, educated in Europe, and enlightened advocates from all the States of the Union have been crowding in upon us, flattered by a prospect which, though bright, cannot be conceived as ample enough to gratify them all. Minds so differently educated, brought into collision, must develop intermediate results, and the compromises and amalgamations of which we have already spoken. We recollect that the late Mr. Legare, who was scarcely less eminent as a common lawyer than as a profound civilian, entertained views similar to our own. He cherished fondly the idea of harmonizing rival systems which he venerated, dissipating the jealousies of their adherents, and developing for America, out of the great process, a legal polity infinitely higher than that of any other nation on earth. But Mr. Legare fell into an untimely grave, and his great idea, which was to some extent to have been exhibited in his contemplated edition of Heineccius, will continue to influence minds equal to his own. The late Judge Story declared that the jurisprudence of Louisiana presents the most valuable means of improving the science of the common law. "I always read the Louisiana Reports," said Judge Kent, "as fast as they appear, and consider them the most learned and interesting decisions in the United States."*

* The following is a list of the statutory works and legal reports now used in the State:

Martin's Reports of the Decisions of the Supreme Court, commencing in 1809—old series	12	volumes.
Martin's New Series, commencing 1823	8	"
Miller's Louisiana Reports, commencing 1830	5	"
Curry's " " " 1833	14	"
Robinson's " " " 1841	11	"
Benjamin and Slidell's Digest of the Decisions of the Supreme Court to 1840	1	"
P. J. Deslix's Supplement to do. to date	1	"
Christie's Digest of the Supreme Court, published about 1835	1	"
Deslix's Analytical Index of all the Decisions of Supreme Court, 1846	1	"
Harrison's Condensed Reports	4	"
Moreau Lisiet's Digest of the Statutes of Louisiana up to 1828	2	"
Martin's Digest " " " 1816	2	"
Bullard and Curry's " " " 1841	1	"
Robinson's Penal Law of Louisiana	1	"
	64	"

Doctrine of Codes.—The experiment of a code of laws has not succeeded so well in Louisiana, we think, as to make it a source of emulation on the part of those States of our Union which have not fallen into the idea. The theory of codification is beautiful enough, but always carries along with it an air of impracticability. It supposes jurisprudence to have arrived or to be able to arrive at perfection, at some one point where the code fixes it. If this be not so, why take the infinite pains to elaborate a code when a slight modification of society, a new phasis, a new institution growing up, a new interest in a few weeks or months, will demand corresponding changes, however slight, yet changes in the law which is to be applied to them. Fix society, and you may fix the law. The metaphysician, John Locke, *abstracted* a constitution for the ancient colony of Carolina, which was to be unchangeable, because perfect; and this whole constitution was so visionary, that hardly a trace of it remained in the colony in twenty years. Away with your ever-changing codes—an absurdity in terms! Our codes have proved themselves to be such. Every session of the Legislature has altered or amended them. Hundreds and hundreds of judicial determinations have been required to explain them, and extensive amendments are even now contemplated. What, then, have we gained? Is our law any clearer, and more certain and fixed than it is in other States? Are legal proceedings less costly and less dilatory? Have we done away with the reporters and their ponderous volumes of decisions? None of all this. We have not advanced anything in these particulars, if it be admitted, and we are disposed to admit that we have not fallen anything behind. In the matter of pleading, we have, perhaps, gained something in simplicity of process, for this is as far removed from complication with us as anything can be; but then how many judicial decisions, even upon these points? We have no partialities for codes from what we have seen of them in this and in other States of the Union; nor, however, any great aversion to their use. If we must have them, let us understand what they are, and not cherish any idea of political perfection, which they clearly do not possess. They are modes of law with advantages and disadvantages; and living in a State where they exist, we would have them improved, as far as possible, just as we would have the law improved in every State even where a code was never thought of, and where, if we lived, we should certainly not be in favor of its introduction.

We have in past sheets exhibited how it happened that codification forced itself upon Louisiana, and how we think it could not well have been otherwise. All the parent systems of her youth were based upon this model, and when she passed into the hands of the United States, it was necessary to know what her laws were, so as to know what they should be under the new aspect of things. This gave rise to the old codes, and the new are but modifications and improvements of them. Mr. Livingston, who played a large part in the compilation, a profound and enlightened jurist, entertained notions of their possible perfection, which almost made him an enthusiast in the cause. His labors we may applaud and admire, though hesitating to agree with him in his conclusions. By act of Assembly of Louisiana in 1820, it was resolved that some person learned in the

law be appointed to prepare for consideration a code of criminal law for the State. Mr. Livingston received the appointment, and on the 21st March, 1822, presented his system of penal law, a volume of eight hundred pages, which was approved and published at the public expense. We say approved, because nothing more was ever done in the matter, and the code remains now in the State House, and in private libraries never consulted, except in merely speculative matters. Little probability is there for its adoption in the future, since the prejudice in favor of codes is rapidly on the decline in the State. Mr. Livingston made a great book, but one of little practical utility. It consists of five divisions—a Code of Crimes and Punishments, a Code of Procedure, a Code of Evidence, a Code of Reform and Prison Discipline, a Book of Definitions, etc., etc. In the undertaking Mr. Hoffman* has said he has shown himself a philosophical legislator, possessed of all the capabilities of the late Jeremy Bentham, but without any of his objectionable peculiarities, together with all the wisdom of Montesquieu, and the animating and ennobling philanthropy of Beccaria. Mr. Livingston's labors were highly applauded in Europe, and the Emperor Nicholas of Russia thought proper to open a correspondence with him in 1826 on the subject. Eminently successful in these undertakings, which had placed him at the head of the school of modern reformers and of philosophical digesters or codifiers, he prepared voluntarily, as we presume, a very elaborate and admirable system of penal law for the United States of America, which was presented to the national legislature, and by order of that body printed and published at Washington, in 1828, in one volume, folio. It consists of three codes or books, viz.: of Crimes and Punishments, of Procedure in Criminal Cases, and of Prison Discipline, to which is added a book of definitions of all the technical words used by him in the foregoing Codes.†

* Legal Outlines, p. 439.

† Hoffman's Legal Study, vol. i., p. 440.

It cannot be doubted that, were codification desirable, America would present a fine field for its exercise. Our laws are at best but in a nascent state, and are thus more susceptible of being thrown into form than they would be at a more advanced period. Several States have been induced to revise and codify their laws, in particular Massachusetts and New York, the last named having innovated with the boldest strokes upon the common law, and struck, as it were, at its very heart. This change was in a measure brought about by the labors of a Mr. Sampson of that State, who devoted himself with unsparing zeal and earnestness to the great reform. Mr. Sampson published a volume on the subject in 1826, containing among other things a series of letters upon codification, which passed between himself, Dr. Cooper, and Governor Wilson, of South Carolina, Charles Watts, Esq., of New Orleans, and Judge Workman, of Louisiana. The attention of South Carolina was called to the subject of codes in 1827. Mr. Grimke, a most eminent leader of the bar there, published an address in advocacy of the reform, which was followed by an able speech in the Senate of that State, by the Hon. John Lide Wilson, and by an elaborate report on the part of that body, but nothing farther was done. Among the law tracts of Lord Bacon, there is one proposing to compile and amend the laws, which, it is said, had he undertaken and executed, would have placed him above his rival Coke, as a lawyer. Jeremy Bentham has been looked upon as the great high priest of codification. On the continent of Europe, these systems have been extensively admitted from the Code Justinian, of Rome, through the codes civil, penal, commercial, and practical of Spain, France, Prussia, Austria, Russia, and Sweden. The code controversy has been agitated for many years in Europe, and resulted in distinct orders or classes of jurists, in view of it. Mr. Hoffman classes them into the Practical School, the Philosophical School, the Historical and the Legistic, all battling for their various views. We should rather, in view of all the difficulties of the subject, agree with Chancelor Kent, that there is a peculiar and inherent difficulty in the application of the new and dazzling theory of codification to such intricate doctrines

Supreme Court of Louisiana.—Before completing our sketch of the jurisprudence of the State of Louisiana, it will be necessary to indulge some reflections upon its highest judicial tribunal—the supreme court. This was substituted in 1813, in place of the old superior court established in 1805. The superior court consisted of three judges, either one of whom constituted a quorum for business, on which account it is said to have had little influence in the development of the laws of Louisiana. The reports of its decisions, by Judge Martin, are highly esteemed. The Supreme Court of Louisiana was organized in 1813, and had appellate jurisdiction only, and that in no other than civil cases. The new constitution, as we shall see hereafter, has essentially changed its organization. The first three judges of the Supreme Court were Dominick A. Hall, George Matthews, and Pierre Derbigny. Hall soon resigned, discovering his knowledge of civil law too limited for the office, and his place the year after (1815) was filled by Judge Martin. These jurists were all eminent in their way; of Martin we have already spoken; Derbigny, it is said, "united with all the learning and science requisite to place him in the first rank of jurists, the sterling integrity and unsullied honor which made him an ornament of the bench; Matthews was a most excellent man, characterized by the sincerest rectitude and love of justice.

Judge Derbigny resigned his seat in 1820, in favor of Judge Porter. This latter jurist during the fourteen years of his administration, attained a most brilliant and enviable reputation. He was learned, comprehensive, deep, powerful in argument and illustration, impartial, clear and convincing; some of his opinions are referred to as masterly productions.* Henry A. Bullard was appointed in 1834, in place of Judge Porter, resigned; and Henry Carleton, in 1837, in place of Judge Matthews, deceased. In 1839, Messrs. Bullard and Carleton resigned, and were replaced by Hon. P. A. Rost, and Geo. Eustis, who also resigned the following year, and G. Strawbridge and A. Morphy were appointed in their stead, the former consenting only to serve temporarily. In 1840 the judges of the Supreme Court were increased to five—Martin, Chief-Justice; Associates, Bullard, Morphy, Simon and Garland. In 1846, the re-organization of the court, under the new constitution, was effected—Hon. Geo. Eustis, Chief-Justice; Associates, King, Rost, and Slidell. Two of them are well-tried jurists, and we have it on high authority that it is impossible to peruse many of their decisions without admiring the sagacity as well as comprehensive knowlege of our legislation which they display. The other two carry to the bench a high standing acquired in the profession.*

The City of New Orleans.—The charter of this now opulent corporation was granted in 1805. Forty years only have passed in the history of New Orleans, and from a population of six thousand souls it has attained already one hundred and fifty thousand, and is press-

which lie wrapped up in principles and refinements remote from the ordinary speculations of mankind; and that no system of law can be rendered free from such imperfections, and the extent of them will necessarily be enlarged and the danger greatly increased, when there have been entire and radical innovations made upon the settled modifications of property, disturbing to their very foundations the usages and analogies of existing institutions.—4 Kent Com. 352.

* See Louisiana Law Journal No. 4, Art. Sup. Court.

ing on in a ratio amazing and almost incredible. What New Orleans will be we can only conjecture. It is already grand, standing on the heights of the Alleghany, and looking westward to the Rocky mountains—tracing the mighty waters of the Ohio, the Missouri, the Mississippi, the Tennessee, and the Arkansas—standing on the Gulf coast as the waters of Texas and Mexico roll into it and mingle themselves with those of the North-west and the West, and marking at the moment a city seated, as it were, in the lap of all these magnificent developments of nature—the fiat of New Orleans has already been sealed, and language confesses its impotence! We sigh not for the mere greatness of a monster, however—the giant's arms and will—the mighty, misshaped, inorganized proportions. We wish for the head, the heart, and the soul, to control our great resources. Who does not mark the changes that are working already? We have a literature growing up; literary men are settling in our midst; our libraries, public and private, are increasing; we have just closed a course of brilliant public lectures by distinguished citizens; we are talking of scientific societies; our common-school system is not surpassed in the country; we have a medical college of high reputation, and a medical journal of brilliant fame; we are to have a university—if the legislature carries out the will of the people—with departments of law, physic, literature and science; our bar and our pulpits are filled with eminent men; and temples for the worship of the most high God are growing up all around us; we have an efficient police; and Providence appears in the act of crowning us with uninterrupted health—the last, but the best boon of all. How little does the world know of New Orleans!*

In 1836 it was thought advisable to divide the city into three separate municipalities by act of Assembly, each with distinct municipal powers. These municipalities extend backward six miles to the Lake Pontchartrain, and are divided from each other by streets and lines running from the river to the lake. The first municipality is divided into five wards, the second into four, and the third into four. Each municipality has a recorder and twelve aldermen, except the third, which has but seven aldermen. A mayor and twelve aldermen preside over the whole city, called the general council, who are elected by general ticket from the city at large, four from each municipality. The Mayor has a qualified veto.† There are different courts established throughout the city for the settlement of small demands for and against citizens in a summary manner, and which are so strikingly defective as to have given great cause of complaint. Some important changes will doubtless be attempted in the city charter so as to accommodate it to the new state of things under the present constitution. The division of the municipalities will, however, not be touched. It has worked well in the past, and though we have our doubts as to

* For much valuable information in reference to the commerce, population, wealth and advancement of New Orleans, morally as well as physically, the reader will find it to his advantage to refer to back numbers of our Review, particularly to the articles on New Orleans and Charleston; on the Health of New Orleans; Public Schools of Second Municipality, &c., &c.

† We would refer the general reader to a pamphlet edition, or digest of the acts of the Legislature, now in force, constituting the City Charter of New Orleans, published within a few days past by T. W. Collens & A. Morel. It will save a mass of labor to the inquirer, and it is an admirable arrangement of the existing law.

the propriety of divisions and subdivisions, yet change, perhaps, is worse than these. A single body, as in other cities, would doubtless possess more efficiency, but would be liable to more abuses. As the city enlarges, this subject will present itself more and more to the minds of those intrusted with its administration.

XI.—*The New Constitution of Louisiana.* Constitutional reform appears now to be the great object of attention throughout the States of our Union. Old principles and forms are to be done away with, and all things to become new, So mutable are human things, and so absurd the position of those who would bind them down to fixed laws! The work is progressing, and time-venerated landmarks are being swept away all around us. These things do not surprise, however much we may frequently have the disposition to regret them. The times are such, at all events, as to demand the highest efforts of patriotism on the part of the best citizens of the republic. We must repress the ardor which, in seeking for liberty and social advancement, seeks it in change where experience has taught us it is not always to be found. As God judges us, we should be watchful over the institutions of our great country, and touch them only at any point with fear and trembling, and with that prayerfulness of heart which looks for wisdom beyond all human foresight. With such a disposition we may enter the temple of constitutional law and re-arrange, modify, amend, and embellish its finely ordered proportions without one desecrating touch, but with infinite beautifying and ennobling skill. In making a constitution for a people we are not establishing mere laws for their government; but going behind even this high attribute, we are making the law maker itself, and establishing that which is to control the whole body of jurisprudence, and fix a standard to which the polity and the progress of a nation are to be accommodated. With any other view of a constitution we should deem it a scourge rather than a blessing, a delusive beacon, subject to every capricious wind, and adapting itself with easy pliancy to ephemeral influences, however contrary to long-established and enlightened experience. If a constitution is to have the flexibility and the instability of a mere law, why then let us call it by its real name, and have done with a distinction which at once becomes absurd. We fear that this understanding of a constitution is but too common in many parts of our country, and that its baleful influences are yet to be felt. It has not been so in the past in Louisiana, but our new constitution which we have so much labored to procure, does not, we apprehend, excite that veneration and regard among us which such an instrument deserves.

Within a very short period the constitutions of several of our sister States have been essentially changed. New Jersey, Texas, and Missouri have passed under a new and in many respects a better order of things. New York, after years of struggling, has called a convention for a similar purpose; and the state of things in Maryland and Virginia evinces a determination, not long to be repressed, to follow in the same direction. Louisiana passed through more than a third of a century under her first constitution; until, indeed, its deficiencies had become so glaring that no one, however conservative in principles, questioned the propriety of a change, though much di-

versity of sentiment may have prevailed as to what the change should be. The State exhibited for some time a hesitation to go into convention on the subject, to be sure; but this without relation to the question of change, but to the question of existing compromises and jealousies, so natural between the old and the new regime of a State, and between the city and the country influences. But the strength of popular sentiment was sufficient to break down all of this, and the legislature on the 30th January, 1841, passed "An act for taking the sense of the good people of the State on the expediency and necessity of calling a convention to amend the constitution of 1812, in the particulars to wit:"

1. As to the right of suffrage.
2. The establishment of a better system of representation.
3. The election of governor by popular vote.
4. The re-organization of the Supreme Court.

This sense of the people being taken at the ballot-box, at the next general election, was unequivocally pronounced in favor of a convention, and also equally unequivocally at the election following. This matter determined, the legislature, on the 18th March 1844, passed an "Act for calling a convention for the purpose of re-adopting, amending, or changing the constitution of the State." A title much more extensive than that of the original act of 1841. The members of this body to be elected from the senatorial districts and parishes, to be in number seventy-seven, to receive the pay of an ordinary legislature, and to meet at Jackson, East Feliciana, on the first Monday of August, 1844. The convention was elected, and met at the place designated, but finding it most difficult to proceed without the facilities at hand of procuring important information in relation to their trust, adjourned over to the following January, at New Orleans, where, entering upon the subject before them in all earnestness, for over four months, they prepared and adopted a constitution for the State, which, being submitted to the people at the ensuing general election, was received by an overwhelming vote, and became the supreme law. Under this constitution the first legislative body has assembled, and is engaged in organizing all the details of government.

In contrasting the old and the new constitutions, it is impossible not to feel how largely the latter in its leading principles has improved upon the earlier law. The old constitution was, however, by no means a more than usually defective instrument. We will venture the assertion that it was superior to those of many other States of the confederacy. Mr. Preston, the late attorney-general, an able lawyer, and by no means a very strong conservative, declared it to be a document venerable for its age, and requiring change only in three or four points. "Let the constitution alone," said he, "wherever no change is required, and only let it be amended in the particulars where amendments are required." Mr. Conrad was rejoiced at the language of Mr. Preston, as it implied that a sparing hand would be used in amending. "That the old constitution had been made at a most auspicious period; that its framers met with the harmony of a band of brothers, and were not actuated by the violence and bitterness of party strife, but were influenced by the same spirit of concession,

the same lofty patriotism, that animated the framers of the federal constitution." Mr. Downs would have the language of the former instrument preserved. "It was consecrated by the associations of thirty years; we should not change a word or letter where there is not some urgent reason for doing so." It was with feelings such as these on the part of the leaders of the convention, that they entered upon their labors, and if, in any of the details of the system, they seem to have departed at all from their commendable caution, the fact can only be attributed to those influences which are felt in all deliberative assemblies.

We shall pass in review a few of the more prominent features in our new law, contrasting them with the former, and exhibiting the causes which called into being many of the original provisions that we find. And first of the

Executive Department.—The changes here have been chiefly in adding a new officer—lieutenant-governor—and constituting him ex officio president of the senate. The governor was required to possess a high property qualification in the old law; but in the new one this is altogether unnecessary; and that officer, as every other officer in the State, may be elected and serve though without a foot of land or its equivalent in money. This is, at least, the theory. The governor has the veto power; he must have resided in the State for fifteen years before his election. Great and strenuous exertions were made in the convention to apply the native American qualification, and thus exclude from this high office whoever may have had the misfortune not to have been born among us. This, we think, is carrying proscription entirely too far; and we rather agree in the main with those eloquent gentlemen who battled against the attempted innovation, and so triumphantly demonstrated its unjust and injurious tendencies. Among these, most conspicuously stood Mr. Soulé, the gifted advocate, and Mr. Marigny. These gentlemen might have been considered as the advocates of the French interests of Louisiana, and standing as it were intermediate between that order of things which belonged to the State in early days, and the new one which has been coming upon her. We can appreciate the delicacy of their position in the convention during such a discussion as this, and admire the skill, ability, and patriotism with which they conducted themselves.

"Is it because the times are changed," said Mr. Soulé, "that we have to seek new subjects to immolate upon the altars of prejudice? Be it so. Attempt to enforce the spirit of persecution. The times are not far off when, yielding this question, it will not only embrace the limits of the State, but will gradually come down to districts, then to parishes, then to towns, and finally we shall be told that we must choose our governor or representatives from such and such a plantation." The case is an extreme one, but we heartily agree with Mr. Soulé, that proscription once commenced will know no limits. Mr. Marigny made a long speech full of historical reminiscences, sarcasms, good humor, and admirable good sense. He appeared to have thrown himself into the subject with an enthusiasm which none but a Frenchman could have felt. "Sir," said he to Mr. Benjamin, "contrary to all parliamentary usage, you call upon the

other distinguished member from New Orleans, Mr. Soulé, and ask him, sir, suppose you had been placed at the head of an army to meet in deadly combat your own countrymen, could you, would you have done it? Sir, I tell you that you have inflicted upon him unjust provocation, and give you distinctly to understand that I take up the glove on his behalf; and, sir, I trust that you will not complain of my not being a native of the country, since I descend from those ancient warriors who conquered the country, and here represent six generations of Louisianians. Fortunately for me, all your fine quotations are lost upon me. I have never read any of those works which are supposed necessary to make a logical man. But, Mr. President, I am one of those who, looking at things as they are, feel myself capable of meeting the emergency of the hour, and of according my political acts to the political wants of my country. But, sir, I ask you by what right do you expect to disfranchise in 1845, those who have rights guarantied them in 1812? Sir, I tell you, I, Bernard Marigny, tell you, that you are, after all, nothing but the servants of the people; nothing more, nothing less; presume upon your authority, and they will soon bring you to a just appreciation of their power over you; and it would not at all surprise me, if they were to obstinately persist, at the very next election, in selecting a governor from the very men whom you are now so anxious to exclude. The laws of the land recognize no distinction between one class of citizens and another. Is there any principle of free government, any principle of republicanism, to sanction such a pretension? They say that a naturalized citizen is not to be entrusted with the powers we confer upon our governor. What, sir, is the power of that governor compared with the power *we* are now administering?" The Native American exclusiveness was thrown out of the convention, and we consider it dead in Louisiana!

The Legislative Department.—Hereafter, the elections all over the State are to be completed in one day, a provision of much wisdom when it is considered how largely it shuts the door against all frauds. The times of election, too, changed from the first Monday in June to the first Monday of November, evidences a disposition to protect the ballot-box from the influences of those who are content to make Louisiana only a depot for their merchandise and an office for their trade during a part of the year, and have their *homes* in every other part of the United States. These men must now brave the "baptism of yellow fever,"* or they can never be considered citizens of Louisiana, enjoying the plenitude of the elective franchise. It cannot be doubted that this new arrangement will do much toward fixing a population with local attachments and sympathies, in place of the incongruous masses which have been only crowding here for a short season. The voter must have resided two consecutive years in the State, without an absence at one time of over ninety days, unless leaving a house or an office in his occupation; with this qualification every white man may vote. The legislature is to meet biennially, and not to sit longer than sixty days; the policy of which there can be no question about. Long parliaments have always been wicked ones. The representative must have resided three years in

* Eustis—Convention Proceedings.

the State, and the senator ten years. The new distribution of members of the two houses among the different sections of the State, was the most difficult and exciting question brought before the convention, since all the prejudices of the city and the country in opposition to each other were brought into full play. The increasing and controling power of the city seemed to have occasioned great alarm, and constitutional checks were deemed absolutely necessary. Indeed, if there was any one point upon which the convention seemed likely to split and frustrate the whole idea of a new constitution, it was this very point of arranging representation. The discussions upon it are worthy of the most careful study, affording as they do, a vast fund of information; and we may hope that the compromise which was at last effected, will be maintained with scrupulous exactness. The new constitution of Louisiana, says the Democratic Review for April, discovers more political insight and a more absolute reliance upon the principle upon which popular governments are based, than appears in the fundamental laws of any other State in the Union.

The Judiciary.—This system was lamentably deficient under the old law, and altogether inadequate to the purposes of justice. The abuses were too palpable to escape the observation of any one, and like a rank weed, litigation was thriving with a spontaneous as well as stimulated growth. The intricacies of such an establishment as we have had, and the sickening delays and injuries! Henceforward the legislature can create no other judicial forums than a Supreme and District Courts and Justices of the Peace, and these it is obligated to create. The Supreme Court has been already organized, as we have seen, and its appellate jurisdiction enlarged so as to cover, in addition to its former field, all cases in which the constitutionality of a tax-toll or impost shall be in contestation, whatever may be the amount thereof, and likewise to all fines, forfeitures, and penalties imposed by municipal corporations, and in criminal cases on questions of law where the punishment of death or hard labor is inflicted.* This court has no original jurisdiction. The District Courts are in progress of creation by the legislature; they are substituted for the old Probate and Parish Courts, which have with unbridled latitude for long years, wrung tears from the eyes of widows and orphans—a plan of cruel wrong, liveried with the angel robes of justice. The Commercial, the Criminal, and the City Courts, the Courts of Errors

* We have a penitentiary establishment at Baton Rouge, and our penal laws graduate crimes by their periods of service at imprisonment and hard labor. The following offences are still capital with us, and punished with death:—murder, arson, duelling with death, poisoning, shooting or stabbing with intent to murder, burglary with weapons, and instigating slaves to insurrection. These are but nominal, however, and death is but seldom inflicted, except upon the murderer, which appears to us the only natural and just punishment, notwithstanding the insane fanaticism of some. The penitentiary is in a prosperous condition, and well patronized. A great variety of mechanic arts are conducted within it, and industrial processes. The products are thrown into the market, and disposed of to the best advantage. The principle is correct. The criminal should toil and support himself. He should even do more, were it possible; and the objection of bringing convict labor in competition with honest labor appears to us too absurd to consider for a single moment. Every dollar that is made within the walls of Baton Rouge is a clear gain to the State, though a few gentlemen outside might lose a little. The penitentiary is leased out by the government, and the lessees have expended the sum of seventeen thousand dollars upon it, in cotton, and woollen, and bagging, and rope machinery, and improvements.

and Appeals, too, are swallowed up and lost. We have no regrets for them. We mark the advent of a better day for those seeking right or averting wrong in Louisiana. "The original jurisdiction of the District Courts," says a well executed pamphlet edition of the Constitution, prepared with comments, by Mr. Glenn,* "shall extend to all cases where the amount in dispute exceeds fifty dollars, exclusive of interest; previously it was one hundred; and in all criminal cases, and in all matters connected with successions, their jurisdiction shall be unlimited. This will throw into the District Courts an immense mass of business. Suitors who have a claim over fifty dollars will naturally prefer an untaxed suit in the District Court rather than hazard the costs, trouble and delay, of an appeal to that court from a Justice of the Peace. The decision of a judge of a District Court is final in all sums between fifty and three hundred dollars. Justices of Peace, Sheriffs and Clerks of courts elected by the people. Taken altogether, it has been said on high authority, that the judiciary of Louisiana is more simple, and at the same time more efficiently organized than that of any other State of the Union."†

GENERAL PROVISIONS.

1. *Corporations and State Indebtedness.*—Unless the ingenuity of construction should gain upon the plain letter of the constitution, the ruinous system of pledging public faith for works more properly belonging to individual enterprise, can never get foothold again in Louisiana. We would have the government do as little as possible beyond governing well. It is worthy of remark, if it be true what Mr. Calhoun stated at Memphis last winter, that, as a proprietor of public works, the General Government had expended seventeen millions of dollars for what would not bring in the market more than half a million. How much more likely to be true in the case of State governments. The public crib will always be pillaged, and we have oftentimes thought, in perfect despair of doing well, that we had better have no crib at all, or at least as small a one as possible. The legislature are now prohibited from pledging the State faith in aid of any private persons, corporations, or bodies politic, except so far as issuing bonds for outstanding liabilities. The following provisions we give in full:—

The aggregate amount of debts hereafter contracted by the Legislature shall never exceed the sum of one hundred thousand dollars, except in case of war, to repel invasions or suppress insurrections, unless the same be authorized by some law, for some single object or work to be distinctly specified therein, which law shall provide ways and means by taxation for the payment of running interest during the whole time for which said debt shall be contracted, and for the full and punctual discharge at maturity of the capital borrowed, and said law shall be irrepealable until principal and interest are fully paid and discharged, and shall not be put into execution until after its enactment by the first legislature returned by a general election after its passage.

No corporate body shall hereafter be created, renewed, or extended, with banking or discounting privileges.

Corporations shall not be created in this State by special laws, except for political or municipal purposes, but the legislature shall provide by general laws for

* The new Constitution of the State of Louisiana, with a Comparative View of the old and new Constitutions. By S. F. Glenn. New Orleans: J. C. Morgan, 1845.

† Democratic Review, Vol. xviii., No. 94, p. 246.

the organization of all other corporations, except corporations with banking or discounting privileges, the creation of which is prohibited.

From and after the first of January, 1890, the legislature shall have the power to revoke the charter of all corporations whose charter shall not have expired previously to that time, and no corporations hereafter to be created shall ever endure for a longer term than twenty-five years, except those which are political or municipal.

The General Assembly shall never grant any exclusive privilege or monopoly for a longer period than twenty years.

2. *Divorce.*—No divorce shall be granted by the legislature; but this says nothing against the principle. Divorces are of every-day occurrence in the courts, holding out in this manner a premium to vice. We have some conscience about the catholic sacrament of marriage, and it really does seem that all legal intermeddling with it is attended with infinite mischief. A single State in our confederacy has gone on more than half a century without dissolving directly or indirectly the bonds of a single matrimonial compact. Either these people of South Carolina are very miserable, or all the rest of us are very wrong.

3. *Duelling.*—This monster practice, consecrated by all the best recollections of Vandalism, is meeting at last in conflict with a sturdy common sense which is armed to the teeth to crush it. Well, laws are vain, and can do nothing in these particulars, if morals be not right. The law, however, is a mere reflection of the influences which are behind it, and it speaks much for these influences when the people, speaking in their highest capacity, have stamped the duellist as a felon, and covered him with unmitigated odium. The clause in the constitution is stringent.

Any citizen of this State who shall, after the adoption of this constitution, fight a duel with deadly weapons with a citizen of this State, or send or accept a challenge to fight a duel with deadly weapons either within the State or out of it, with a citizen of this State, or who shall act as a second, or knowingly aid or assist in any manner those thus offending, shall *be deprived of holding any office of trust or profit, and of enjoying the right of suffrage under this constitution.*

This clause is not a little surprising, when it is reflected that in no other State has duelling been in greater vogue than here. We would have supposed a bitter conflict in the convention before its adoption, but nothing of the kind occurred. There was a general admission of its wisdom, and no one was hardly called upon to express an opinion. Mr. Garcia did indeed say, with what we conceive mistaken warmth, "It seems to me that there is a conspiracy against the chivalric portion of our population. I am apprehensive that, without knowing it, you are the dupes of some ambitious persons whose craven spirits shrink from any responsibility, and who are anxious to exclude from a civil and political career honorable men whom they fear to meet on equal grounds. They will insult them—they will calumniate them—they will persecute them at their leisure in the public papers, and will force them to crouch beneath those insults, or otherwise lose their privileges of citizenship. And I will ask you if you think that the youth of the country are to be restrained by a provision which places the murderer, the assassin above the brave and honorable man."

The provision does not go far enough; for its restrictions are most

severely incumbent upon citizens, and exposes them, as Mr. Ratcliff remarked, to the insults of strangers, and deprives them of all means of redress under the severest penalties. Mr. Chinn added that it was notorious that in Virginia duels were quite as common as in Louisiana. A provision was adopted similar to the section which has passed this body. It had no effect. At length it was resolved to apply the test of an oath. This was done, but the constitutional question was raised as to whether this could be done. The courts decided the question in the affirmative, and duelling from that moment ceased. I have no doubt that similar results in Louisiana will follow the adoption of similar means.*

4. *Seat of Government.*—From the days of Bienville, with little interruption, until this time, New Orleans has been the capital of the State. For some years there has been evinced on the part of the country great opposition to its remaining so, and equal determination in the city to maintain its ground. In 1830 a removal was attempted, and Donaldsonville fixed upon as a proper site. Buildings were put up at large expense, and the next session of the Assembly convened in the town. We quote from Mr. Marigny's facetious speech in the Convention, which could not but have excited much amusement, the result of this manœuvre:—"Having promised the country members," said he, "to remove the seat of government from New Orleans to the country, some years since, to give it a trial, we consented to remove the session of the Legislature to Donaldsonville; that was the decision, and the location was made there. Thanks to the delightful dreamers of those days for the future prosperity of Louisiana, said the contractor; for he got $50,000 for the job of putting up the State-House. But what was the end of this scheme? The members of the legislature had scarcely assembled ere they began to complain, and many, even it is said, cried with bitterness and mortification at being cooped up in so small a place. Every steamboat that landed was boarded by the legislature, almost in a body to know the news from town. Each day was to them an insupportable burden. Each night was fraught with ugly dreams, and each succeeding morning they would say, I would not pass another such a night for all the world. At last they all had a dream. It seems one and all were taken charge of by Queen Mab, and she clearly showed them that the walls of the new State-House were about to fall over their heads and crush them into mummies. Oh, what a catastrophe! Horrible indeed! We could not convince them to the contrary, and back they came to New Orleans."† The Convention after some debate, inserted the following clause in the Constitution:

> The General Assembly which shall meet after the first election of representatives, shall, within the first month after the commencement of the session, designate and fix the seat of government at some place not less than sixty miles from the city of New Orleans by the nearest traveling route, and if on the Mississippi river, by the meanders of the same; and when so fixed, it shall not be removed without the consent of four-fifths of the members of both houses of the General Assembly. The sessions shall be held in New Orleans until the end of the year 1848.

The legislature has met, and after a struggle, fixed the new capi-

* Debates in Convention of Louisiana, pp. 916, 872.
† Proceedings of the Convention, p. 325.

tal at Baton Rouge, a town beautifully situated on the Mississippi, some one hundred and fifty miles from New Orleans. A place more advantageously and pleasantly located in every respect could not be found. It contains already the United States barracks and the State penitentiary. Ample appropriations are all that is required now to construct edifices adapted to the purposes of the State. We hope that they will be immediately and liberally made. It was not to be expected that New Orleans could have remained the seat of government. The strong prejudices of the smaller towns and of the country in nearly all of the other States, have wrested away from the metropolis its privileges in this particular. There have been but few exceptions indeed to this rule. We shall not argue the question of propriety, or indeed pronounce any decided opinion upon it here. The fact is sufficient for us. The metropolis, it is supposed, will oppress everything out of itself. A great city, like a great giant, excites terror all around. The influence of the populace, of the mob, must be guarded against. Lobby influences are too strong to be resisted. Intimidation is too easily effected upon the weak nerves of members. Good dinners, fêtes and soirées change votes in twenty-four hours irresistibly. The city will rule if it entertains the rulers. It will attract them off from their duties into pleasure and dissipation, and by its fine shows, its gala-days and its fascinations, prolong sessions almost indefinitely, and work out, no knowing how much, of the long public purse. The city, too, is generally far from being central. These are the arguments on one side. On the other, we are pointed to the dreary dismal country town, with its miserable inns, its ennui, its sedate and unambitious press, its total want of all the great sources of information—libraries, public and private, reading-rooms, files of old journals, practical business men, and we are directed to the city where all of these exist in the highest perfection, where taste and letters are cultivated, and all the finer influences which form and adorn society; the city which in modern improved traveling can be reached from the largest distance almost as soon as a neighbor's house could formerly be, and where almost every one possessed of any means feels it a kind of religious duty, if not a business, to make a pilgrimage at least once a year. But we are growing tedious with this matter.

5. *University of Louisiana.*—The Convention, after providing for a superintendent of public instruction, for public schools and academies, proceeded to enact:

A University shall be established in the city of New Orleans. It shall be composed of four faculties, to wit: one of Law, one of Medicine, one of the Natural Sciences, and one of Letters.

This is very well and very commendable. Nothing could reflect more honor upon the authors; but the next clause is objectionable.

The legislature shall be under no obligation to contribute to the establishment or support of said University by appropriations—

Why not? If the legislature should be under obligations to do anything in the world, it should be to do this very thing. They are not in the condition of the man who said, "Sir, my constituents ask for no appropriations, they scorn to be enlightened." Pledge the public faith as much as you please, involve the State just as deeply

as you please in debt, so that the object be judicious public instruction. You have an equivalent for all you spend, and you raise up men capable of extricating the State from all its burdens, and elevating her to infinite honor. The legislature *is* obligated to support the university, and should do it. Who else will do it? Who else can? It is not a matter wholly for private enterprise, though private enterprise may largely aid it. Everywhere else in the Union it has been made a matter of public concern. Many of the States lavish annually enormous sums upon their universities and colleges, and they do right, just as a father would do right in expending his income upon the education of his children. Let the legislature consider themselves obligated. Let them be liberal, if discreet, with this college, liberal with its endowments and its patronage, and they will never be called to account for a malfeasance in office. They will stand like the Roman in the presence of his enemies, but in sight of the hill where he had saved Rome. They will stand like Pericles silencing his accusers by pointing around to the magnificence and the glory with which he had embellished Athens. Like the noble matron pointing to her children, they can then turn to the youth educated by their munificence, and glory in the best and most precious jewels of the State! We shall have an article in our next number on the organization of this university,* and shall conclude at present by introducing a few remarks of Messrs. Eustis and Benjamin upon it, which are highly creditable to their heads and hearts.

Mr. Eustis said—

I may be told that there are self-educated men. I admit that there are men who will learn everything, and make themselves distinguished. There are many on this floor. But how many have come out of the mass after thirty years, and after expending a million and a half of dollars for the purpose of education in this State? Are we to rely upon that source alone for men to whom we may with safety commit the destinies of the State? Where are we to get our judges and legislators? Unless particular individuals are endowed with the highest order of intellect, we cannot expect that a mere common-school education will suffice. There are those who will shine conspicuous despite of circumstances. These are exceptions. But, for the mass of mankind, you must provide adequate means of acquiring knowledge.

What is our position at present? we have no means of educating a lawyer or architect. Well, you permit the money of the State to be sent abroad for the education of your children. How much money? No less a sum than two hundred thousand dollars per annum! But that is not all—you exile your children. You may have strangers to administer your laws, if not in birth perhaps in feeling. Intellect is power. Men of intelligence, come from where they may, must govern. Let us put a stop to the crying evils which must result from the want of adequate means to confer a home education. Let us at least plant the tree of knowledge. We ask you for nothing more than to protect it from the ruthless hand of violence. Unless you sanction some such plan as is suggested in the section before you, every system you may devise will be but a mockery. We ask you for no money—no lands; we only ask you for the means of establishing a proper system of education. We ask you for an institution where the lawyer, the physician, and the architect may be perfected. New Orleans is the centre of

* We are to hope that the present legislature will not adjourn without taking steps for the organization of this university, so that there may be the least delay possible in completing so admirable a work. Great wisdom will be required in the ordering of details. The past history of the State presents a melancholy picture of academies and colleges chartered and endowed, and yet falling entirely short of anything that might have been expected from them. The strength of the State has been diffused rather than concentrated. A single *efficient* institution is preferable to a score of such as we have had. The present State-House will supply a temporary building.

an empire. Go to our public lectures, and you will find them thronged. I have been repeatedly called upon by the young men of the city to deliver lectures. The coffee-houses are ceasing to be the haunts of dissipation and *ennui*. All this avidity for knowledge has been excited without the fostering hand of the government. One word more, and I am done. Look at the institutions that have stood the test of time—Harvard and Yale! Both these institutions are recognized in the constitutions of their respective States. This is a worthy example for the wisdom of Louisiana. Let us imitate it, and the fruits will be many.

Mr. Benjamin said—

That one moment's reflection would convince the delegate from St. Landry, Mr. Lewis, that a university of the character contemplated could be established nowhere out of the city of New Orleans. Nothing more was asked than a perpetual charter. It was contemplated that the institution should be composed of four faculties—a faculty of Medicine, of Law, of Arts, and of Letters. It would be necessary to begin on a small scale, for the funds that may be raised otherwise would not suffice. Eminent men in the several professions in the city would be invited in their spare hours to deliver lectures. It would be impossible to provide the necessary professors out of the city, without a very heavy expense, which the immediate resources of the institution could not afford. Lectures would be delivered by men of science, members of the bar and physicians, who would take a spare moment from their professional pursuits; and as the city combined the greatest facilities to obtain the services of such persons, it was manifest, that to say that the institution should not be established in the city, was equivalent to saying that it should not be established at all, for there were no adequate means at hand to establish it, and it could not be established in any other way than by the plan proposed. The State was yet too young to endow such an institution. At the North, these institutions were promoted by the legacies of wealthy men We have not the same resources, and would have to rely upon useful and valuable members of the different professions, to contribute their energies and the faculties with which God has endowed them, in furtherance of the undertaking—men who are eminent as physicians and lawyers, and as votaries of science. He hoped no sectional jealousy would be excited upon this subject. If it be desired to establish this institution in the city, it is chiefly because it is impracticable to locate it in the country without immense resources—such resources as neither the State nor individuals can hope to contribute at the present time.

There remains little else to be remarked upon the constitution. Taken as a whole, we have the highest regard for it. Most of its particulars are admirable. We could raise an objection to its length, to its particularity and approach to objects of mere legislation, but these errors are so common now that no one thinks of animadversion. Our constitutions now are going far into details. The model for such instruments, in our mind, has always been otherwise. We have loved the idea of a few great and immutable principles incorporated, leaving all the rest to time. But this seems unattainable according to general understanding, and we must yield. One reflection presents itself, which is worthy of being noted, however—the more you crowd into a constitution, the more chances of its weakness, and the less likelihood of its endurance. In the details of the instrument before us, there have been supposed to be defects. Its oath of allegiance has given great annoyance and no little labor to those who are ever ready to ply the telescope in the hope of discovering spots upon the sun. They are welcome to such employment. The oath of allegiance, upon principle and in effect, is sufficient, though to prevent all carping, it had as well perhaps been more explicit. We say nothing on the doubt which has been raised as to the extent to which the offices under the old constitution have been abolished by the new one. The judiciary may yet be called upon to pass upon these matters and others of like nature growing out of the new law;

a thing common enough and not unnatural. We do not complain of it either, for who with more propriety could be called upon to explain the laws than the law-makers, *i. e.* the lawyers!

Our sketch is ended, and wearied at last as well as the reader, we dismiss it without much regret. The subject has been to us most interesting, and we have pursued it with enthusiasm. State love is a noble feeling, which we should all inculcate and cherish. There is no love which does not begin at the fireside—in the homestead where we live and where we are surrounded by our friends and our associates, and where memory has hallowed occasions and scenes long gone by. The existence and preservation of our glorious confederacy depends more than all else upon a strong State feeling and pride, and love, which, prevailing in each of its parts, protects them from all danger of merging in and being lost in the mass; but keeps them like the beautiful orbs in heaven revolving around their centre, distinct and individual; yet parts, and necessary parts, of one great and wonderful system. D.

Art. II.—TRUE REMEDY FOR THE EMBARRASSMENTS OF COTTON PLANTERS AT THE SOUTH AND SOUTH-WEST.

THE interest of these sections are in a manner identical, their crops and mode of cultivation being similar, the only difference to be discerned is found in the greater productiveness, at the present time, of the soil throughout the latter. The agricultural prospects and the doings of the planter will be considered more in reference to the latter.

Good men and true have devoted much attention to the agriculture of this country; they have given good and wise precepts; they have striven to change the present unpleasant state of affairs; and most assuredly have their labors been effectual. There may not be any very marked change, but there has been much improvement in the mode of managing an estate, which will in due time bear an abundant harvest. That the best is not done, that the precepts have not had full consideration, any one may see for himself; but no reasonable man could expect to change a routine of almost half a century's standing, in a few months: to change the habits of a people requires almost an age; to see the change has certainly begun, is sufficient; and to show it, witness the sales of hay, pork, beef, mutton, wool, fruit, etc., etc., from Mississippi, within the past eighteen months. The present price of cotton is too low for the cotton planter; he cannot afford to make cotton when not yielding over from $100 to $140 per hand. It matters not how this state of agricultural depression was brought about; whether it be caused by the tariff, whether by the banks loaning freely and thus causing increased product, or how; the important matter is not to quarrel about who, or what caused, but like working-men apply the means to effect a change. Can a change be effected? What means should be applied? and when should they be applied? are questions open for investigation.

A writer in the third number of the Commercial Review, answers

them at length; whether satisfactory to the people or not, it is not necessary to say. To strike at the root of the evil, it would be well to examine the whole matter, as the lawyer would his case, or the physician his patient, not content to rely on a few statements.

The planter is regretting his peculiar hard lot; his negroes are worked full hours, and he receives a bare pittance of the returns made to the manufacturer or to the sugar planter: he plants more cotton, works his negroes harder, drives all day and part of the night, and yet he complains. Like the nostrum vender, he will not be convinced that calomel is killing his patient, but he gives larger and larger doses. What is the result? He is compelled to pay doctors larger bills for attention on the sick, caused by over work: he has to pay to Kentucky larger prices for mules, and horses, and hemp, the price being increased by the increased demand; he wants more meat and more bread, owing to his not having time to make them: he has to make a greater show of wealth, as his poor neighbors who make less cotton, and more meat, and bread, and clothing, and colts, and stock generally, are beginning to buy conveyances for their families to ride to church in: he turns off an overseer every few months, and finally laments, until he is weary, over his fate.

Should such a man be advised to hold on to his crop for better prices? Apply to the legislature to give premiums? Make less cotton? Build up manufactories? This has been done again and again. What then counsel him to do? Examine the case well, and let a planter who has long watched the course of events, act as a kind of mentor, while you are making an examination. Do you not see that on this plantation the negroes are overworked, although they are fed high; you see no small children; you hear not the cheerful song nor the laugh that comes from the happy negro. You will also please to observe the beautiful quality of the hay, put up in handsome square bales; these bales are from Ohio, and good hay it is. Do you mark the sacks that are lying there; they once contained corn that you will perceive was from a flat-boat, if you will lift a sack to your nose. Here, sir, is as neat an axe-helve as was ever made in Connecticut; good bridles and good collars, good backbands, all, they cost a mere trifle. You will find excellent Lowell and good linsey, it being cheaper to buy than to make; and besides, there is nothing saved even by working at this kind of work on wet days. You will find yonder a fine, sleek, well-conditioned horse; he belongs to the overseer; and near at hand you see the rough outside of a very good carriage-horse; corn is too scarce to feed him with. Ah! and there goes the planter; he has just returned from a political stump harangue, where the planters have been discussing the merits of the candidates for the next Presidency. Shall we visit the house, and see the china and the silver, and the silk and lace, and extra servants? No, no! we will not enter into the sanctum of the injured one—he is an injured man. The merchant and the manufacturer have conspired to put him down. England determines to take his slaves from him; he is desponding, and cannot for the soul of him go to work like the manufacturer, or the merchant, but expects the "good old times" to return again. Have you seen enough? Can you see what is first requisite?

Let the planter set to work himself, and turn off his overseer; let him make his bread, his meat, raise a few colts, and hay to feed them on; let him increase the quantity of corn and forage until he can spare a little; let him take the interest in his own business that the merchant or manufacturer must who expects success; let him learn his sons that idleness is the "road to ruin;" let him teach his daughters that they are not dolls or milliner girls, but that they are the future makers or marrers of this beautiful republic; let him ever remember the old saying, "the master's footsteps are manure to his land," and we think he will have less cause to repine, and more cause to think that his "lot is cast in happy places."

Good, very good, sir; you have now struck at the root of the evil, and it is to be hoped that you will enter more minutely into the particulars how all these matters should be effected.

The questions in the latter part of the second paragraph are answered in a summary manner above; the answers follow as evidently as cause precedes its effect; unless there was a remedy there would be folly in talking of it. If the remedy be not found in diminishing expenses, practising frugality and industry, and thus, of course, diminishing the amount of cotton for sale, then there is no use to search for a remedy. And if these things can and ought to be done, then promptness should be the watchword. The merchant who controls his millions, is found attending to his business; true, he has his clerks and porters, but he is not the less diligent. The lawyer is busy with his "books" and "papers" all day and late at night. The physician cannot spare the time from his "prescriptions" and his "visits." The manufacturer, ever working "short hours," has to examine into the "state of trade," or he will lose his "market." Why then should the planter, above all others, be permitted to pass his days and nights in listless idleness. Has he exemption from "by the sweat of thy face, thou shalt earn thy daily bread;" or, "he that will not work, neither shall he eat!" There is one thing certain, the planters of the South and South-west must give up sloth and idleness; they must take the lesson taught by Hercules to the wagoner,—"put your shoulders to the wheel." Besides this they must pursue a more mixed course of husbandry; they have relied long enough on the one thing; it is high time another course was pursued.

That manufactories would benefit this portion of the United States there is not a shadow of doubt; that legislative aid, directed to developing the latent facilities of the country would, is evidently plain. That making less cotton would enhance the price, is highly reasonable. But were all these done, and the present practice pursued, the improvement would be delusive. The redress to be effectual must commence at home—the improvement, to be valid and permanent, must start at the planter's own home.

Art. III.—ANALYTICAL INDEX OF THE WHOLE OF THE PUBLIC DOCUMENTS RELATIVE TO LOUISIANA, DEPOSITED IN THE ARCHIVES OF THE DEPARTMENT—"DE LA MARINE ET DES COLONIES ET PARIS."—Continued.

PORTFOLIO NO. 4.

1721.—By-laws by the West India Company for the government of Louisiana, approved by the king.

1721.—Rules by the same company to encourage the culture of tobacco, rice, and the introduction and education of silk-worms.

No date.—Report on the Indians; extracts from Governor de Vaudreuille's correspondence, announcing a treaty of peace with the Chactas, a nation counting 4,000 warrors, and occupying an extent of country exceeding 40 leagues. This document must have been written about the close of 1739.

1761.—Extract of a letter from M. de Kerlerec to the Marquis d'Ossun, complaining of the conduct of the government of Campeachy toward French vessels that had entered that port in distress, while on a voyage from New Orleans to Havana, for assistance on behalf of the colony.

1761.—St. Ildephonse.—Letter from the Marquis d'Ossun informing M. de Kerlerec of instructions given to the government of Mexico, Havana, Pensacola, and of all other Spanish possessions in behalf of all French vessels; speaks of the projects of England to obtain possession of Mexico, and of the necessity of retaining Louisiana as the best means of defeating their plans.

1761.—Letter from M. de Kerlerec to the Marquis d'Ossun complaining of the silence of his court; proposes to use cyphers for their correspondence.

1761.—Escurial.—Memorial from the French ambassador respecting the impossibility to supply Louisiana with the assistance needed, all French vessels being captured by the English; points out the common interest of Spain and France in retaining Louisiana; suggests a depot in Havana, Campeachy, and other neighboring ports, of provisions, fire-arms, and munitions of war, to be within reach of New Orleans whenever required. All such provisions and other articles required, to be paid for by the French government.

1763.—Decree by the "Conseil Supérieur de la Louisiane," forbidding the introduction of slaves from St. Domingo, poisoning being common in that island among the negroes.

1752.—Letter from M. Michel, "Ordonnateur," to the minister, complaining of the want of proper officers for the "Conseil Supérieur," and begging the government to supply the colony with two young engineers, and one surveyor.

1752.—Letter from M. de Vaudreuille to the minister advising the capture by a Spanish "Garde Cote," of the French vessel "l'Etoile," and demanding her restitution.

1754.—Letter from MM. de Kerlerec and d'Auberville, announcing the arrival of families from Lorraine, sent by government; speaks favorably of those families whom they advise having placed in the parish "des Allemands."

1754.—M. d'Auberville to the minister with the budget of the colony for 1754, and a list of all officers employed.

1754.—MM. de Kerlerec and d'Auberville to the minister, requesting the government to send two miners to work the mines discovered in Illinois—lead and copper.

1659.—M. Michel to the minister, with full reports on the condition of the country; gives interesting details on the culture of cotton; the difficulties to separate the seed from the wool; of a gin invented by M. Debreuil; the culture of tobacco, rice, indigo, and the commerce of peltries; the advantages that might be obtained by irrigation of the land in dry seasons, and the renovation of the fields by introducing the water of the Mississippi on old lands, &c., &c.

1753.—M. d'Auberville to the minister, showing the necessity of rebuilding the government house; announcing the death of M. Michel, and the situation of the treasury on that day.

1735.—MM. Bienville and Salmon, improvement in the management of the militia hospital since placed under the care of the Ursulines; complains of medicines furnished by government.

1731.—Letter from M. Dirou d'Artaguette to the minister, defending himself against charges brought by Governor Perrier; interesting details of his wars with the Indians.

1728.—M. Dirou to the minister on the situation of the country of Mobile.

1739—Chicachas war; details of the forces sent from France.

1736.—MM. de Bienville and Salmon, interesting details on the Chicachas campaign; the retreat of M. de Bienville with 544 men under command.

1751.—M. de Vaudreuille to the minister announcing the termination of the war with the Chactas; begs for the cross of St. Louis for Captain de Grandpré, as a reward for the services rendered by him during the last campaign.

1729.—Chicachas war; expedition from France, 500 men; detail on the projected campaign.

1731.—MM. Perrier and Salmon, announcing the recording in the minutes of the "Conseil Supérieur" of the letters patent of the king respecting the retrocession by the West India Company of all their privileges in Louisiana; interesting statistical statements and other documents showing the true condition of the colony at that epoch.

1736.—M. Dirou d'Artaguette, announcing the failure of the expedition of M. de Bienville, at the head of 1,500 men, including his allies, against the Chicachas.

1731—M. Dirou d'Artaguette, details on the Indian War; calls for aid.

1762.—Letter from the king of France to M. de Kerlerec, in which he states, "by the preliminaries of peace agreed upon at Fontainbleau on the 3d November last, having ceded part of the province of Louisiana to the king of England, I have resolved upon ceding the other part to my cousin, the king of Spain." Then follows an order for the delivery to England and Spain of the whole of the province, in accordance with the limits fixed upon in the said preliminaries.

1762.—Instructions of the king to M. d'Abbadie regarding the delivery of Louisiana to England and Spain.

1731.—Dirou d'Artaguette, announcing new disorders among the Natchez; the murder of two officers near the Arkansas; destruction of the Tunicas by the Natchez; calls for assistance.

No date.—Instructions of the king to M. d'Abbadie regarding the artillery and munitions of war at Mobile. This letter must have been written in 1762.

1721.—Instructions from the West India Company to the directors and sub-directors in Louisiana, for their guidance in the management of the affairs of the company.

1719.—Report of M. Hubert on Pensacola; Dauphin Island; Ship Island and l'Ozage; recommends Ship Island as the best harbor for men-of-war.

1721.—Instructions by the West India Company to the directors and sub-directors in Louisiana, signed in Paris by Demachault and Dedune.

1713.—Interesting memorial by M. Duclos on Louisiana, including the country of Mobile, addressed to Count Pontchartrain.

1718.—Paris—Memorial on Louisiana, signed L. A. de Bourbon, le Maréchal d'Estrées, par le conseil, Lachapelle.

This memorial is full of interest. France had then in view the possession of the whole of North America; to attain such an end Louisiana was considered as the basis of the whole plan, and a colonization upon a large scale was recommended. A naval depot was suggested on Ship Island; a general plan of fortifications was proposed, from Pensacola to the Baie St. Bernard. The English plan of colonization was strongly recommended, to wit; 500 to 600 families at a time, provided by government with all the necessary utensils, cattle, etc., etc., and provisions for one year. The whole to be returned by the parties when in a situation to do so; none but good peasants to be sent; the plan comprehending the Wabash, the Illinois, the Yazoo, the Missouri and Natchitoches; the working the mines of Missouri proposed; the memorial is thus concluded:

"A large commerce can be carried on between Mexico and Missouri. Missouri has another branch nearly as important; its source is said to be from the same mountain; it is believed that this branch empties itself in the Western sea. The Canadians invited to those parts would soon create establishments for a commerce with Japan and China."*

* Documents 331 and 341 in this index show that the recommendations contained in the memorial of De Bourbon and Maréchal d'Estreés did not remain unheeded. A short insight into these documents, which in the index are only briefly noticed, cannot fail to be of interest in the present juncture of our national affairs.

No. 331 is a report of an exploration, undertaken in 1719 by Bernard de la Harpe, by order of Governor Bienville, of the country lying between the Mississippi and the head waters of the Arkansas rivers. He was bearer of an order from the king of France, dated 16th Nov., 1718, whereby it appears that France at that epoch claimed, under the discovery of La Salle, the whole of the province named Lastekas by the Spaniards, and by them considered as part of New Mexico. De la Harpe was instructed to oppose such pretensions by force if necessary, first representing that Don Antonio de Miroir, who had discovered, in 1683, the Northern Provinces, had never entered the country east of the Rio Bravo, while France, on the contrary, had entered into treaties with the Indians of those regions at the very commencement of La Salle's discoveries. The journey of De la Harpe was through the Red river country by land to the Arkansas river, which he followed to latitude 37 deg. 45 min., where then stood a large village called Imaham. He was there received by the mentos composed of the following nations: the Tanacaros, Toayas, Cannouches, Adecos, Onsitas, Ascanis, Quatalons,

No date.—Report from La Rochelle, announcing the departure of the frigates La Victoire et La Duchesse de Noailles, with 570 men for Louisiana.

Quirasquiris, and Onechas; they were at war with the Canecey and Padoucas, and some of the Panis villages; the Aricaras of Missouri were known to them. Bernard de la Harpe, after giving an account of his journey, comes to the conclusion that Charlevoix is in error as to the Western sea (Mer de l'Ouest), and that it can only be reached through the interior of the lands.

No. 341 is the history of the second exploration by De la Harpe, undertaken by order of Governor Bienville, in December, 1721. His instructions were to ascend the Mississippi to the mouth of the Arkansas, and then to go up the river as far as it could be navigated, and to explore the country bordering it; want of provisions, however, compelled him to return, after having ascended only 115 leagues (345 miles). In 1719, he had struck that river at 280 leagues (840 miles) from its mouth.

Bernard de la Harpe closes the *history of his discoveries* with the following remarks on the best route to be followed to reach the Western sea (Mer de l'Ouest):

"Ice, and long winters and short summers render such a journey through the northern part of Canada next to impossible.

The most practicable rout would be to ascend the Mississippi to its source, in latitude of about 48 degrees, then to strike through the country of the Sioux Indians to Lake Brochet, which, according to the report of the Indians, is not far distant from a large river which runs westwardly, and falls no doubt in some bay of the Western sea (Mer de l'Ouest) to the northward of California. The only difficulty at present, 1722, is the war between the Sioux and Renards and us.

Another route might be taken through the Missouri, which can be ascended in large boats beyond the village of that name in latitude 40 deg. 30 sec., but from that village to the Western sea, there would still be about 550 leagues (1650 miles).

Such a journey could be accomplished through the Arkansas. This river can be navigated 280 leagues (840 miles). There, in the village discovered in 1719, guides, hunters, horses and provisions would be found to pursue the discovery. The distance from that point to the Western sea cannot be more than 450 leagues (1350 miles); still, the navigation of the Missouri extending farther west, it would be the most agreeable route. For such an expedition 40 Canadians and 60 soldiers would be required, and the cost would not exceed 20,000 livres; while if we had the good fortune of finding a good port in the northern part of California, an extensive trade might soon grow out of such direct communication with Japan, the coast of China, and Mexico, and Peru; and the Spaniards need not be feared, as they have no establishments beyond the parallels of 36 deg. and 38 deg.

At the above epoch, the Canadians were the great pioneers of the vast West, and nothing could be undertaken without them. They generally assumed *soubriquets*, such as Latulipe, Lajeunesse, L'Esperance, &c., &c. One century and a quarter has since elapsed, and we still see the same hardy race leading the exploring parties, and pointing out in their own *patois*, on either side of the great south pass of the Rocky mountains, the great landmarks of their ancestors. Among the companions of Captain Fremont, in his exploring expedition of 1842 and 1843, we again find the Latulipe, the Lajeunesse, the L'Esperance, &c., of 1722, with the same stout hearts and undaunted intrepidity.

It is worthy of remark, that two of the routes indicated by De la Harpe were followed by Capt. Fremont, to wit:—the Missouri and its tributaries; the Arkansas and its forks. The lake mentioned by De la Harpe is evidently the Mountain lake at the south pass, which was represented by the Sioux Indians as being at a short distance from a great river running westwardly. La Harpe, in his exploring voyage in 1719, struck the Arkansas in latitude 37° 45′; and Captain Fremont, in his expedition in 1843, made it in latitude 38° 15′ 23″. That the French have been the earliest pioneers through both valleys of the Rocky mountains, is evidenced by the whole narrative of Capt. Fremont's expedition. Alluding to the word "butte," the Capt. thus expresses himself: "the French word butte, which so often occurs in this narrative, is retained from the familiar language, and identifies the objects to which it refers; it is naturalized in the regions of the Rocky mountains." (Fremont's Narrative, p. 161.) On the route to the Pacific, in the same narrative, are found the following land-marks and names of rivers, etc.: Rivière aux Cajeux, Vallée de la rivière Boisée, Rivière aux Bouleaux, Rivière Brulée, L'arbre Seul Grand Rond, Great nez percé, etc., etc., which shows that the explorations of the French must have extended much beyond the Rocky mountains in the early days of the colony of Louisiana, although no records have been published of the same; and this can be accounted for:—before such discoveries could be made useful to France, she had ceased to have any interest in Louisiana. By the treaty of peace of 1763, "the confines of the British and French territories on the continent of North America were fixed by a line drawn along the middle of the river Mississippi, from its source to the river Iberville, and thence by a line drawn across the river

1718.—Incomplete memoranda concerning M. de St. Denis' journey through the Red river to Mexico.

1713.—M. Crozat informs the government of the efforts of the British to seduce the Indians on the upper Mississippi and in the Natchez country; applies for two officers and forty men for Illinois.

1716.—Incomplete memoranda on certain changes proposed for Dauphin Island, and the Fort St. Louis, of Mobile; instructions to be given to the military posts in Louisiana, and particularly to that of Alibamons.

1714.—Military establishments (posts) in Louisiana, ordered by the king in a letter under this date.

1716.—Memoranda on the morus tobacco, and a leaf, named appalachine, considered a specific for the gout and for the stone, and other diseases, by the Indians of Appalache. These memoranda are by M. Lamothe, who strongly recommends the introduction of silk-worms.

1716—Instructions to M. de Lamothe respecting the works on Dauphin Island, etc., etc.

1716.—M. de Lamothe on the discovery of certain mines.

1718.—Inventory of the public stores, etc., etc., in the king's warehouses on Dauphin Island and in Mobile.

1721.—Appointment by the king of the Chevalier le Blond de la Tour, as Lieutenant-general of the province of Louisiana.

Petition of the West India Company to the King, praying that by letters patent of the 15th January, 1724, M. Delachaise having been made a member of the supreme council, although deputed by the king with extraordinary powers to investigate the affairs of the company in Louisiana, by decree of his Majesty's council of 8th December, 1722, that the said Delachaise be permitted to act as honorary counselor in the Conseil de Régie Générale, and in that capacity to serve the company in the furtherance of the welfare of the colony. This petition is signed by the directors of the West India Company in Paris.

and the lakes Maurepas and Pontchartrain to the sea; and the king of France cedes the river and port of Mobile, and everything he possesses on the left side of the river Mississippi, except the town of New Orleans, and the island whereon it is situated, which remains to France; provided, the river Mississippi shall be free to the subjects of Great Britain and France in its breadth and length, from its source to the sea."—(Postlethwayt's Map and Universal Dictionary of Commerce and Trade. London edition, 1774.)

"The line that parts French Canada from British Canada, was settled by the Commissaries after the peace of Utrecht, making a curve from Davis' Inlet, in the Atlantic sea, down to the 49° through the Lake Abitibis, to the North-west ocean." (Ibid., article Map.)

Thus after the peace of 1763, France remained in possession of the island of New Orleans, on the left bank of the Mississippi, and of the whole of the right bank from the source of the Mississippi to its mouth, and as far westwardly as her discoveries extended. But very soon afterward she lost all footing on this continent, by her cession to Spain of the whole of the above country; and no wonder that after the loss of such an empire, she should have suffered the records of her discoveries to have mouldered away, unknown to the world. Under the humiliation of that, to France, fatal epoch, all papers connected with the Canadas and Louisiana, really appear to have been indiscriminately thrown into a corner, as if those countries had been swept from the face of the earth, and in that condition, such as yet remain are still to be found in the archives of the Department de la Marine et des Colonies. No doubt that if proper researches were to be instituted, not only in the above department, but also in the public libraries and other archives of France, documents would be found which might throw valuable light on the early history of the Rocky mountains, of their valleys, of the Mississippi, and of the Pacific, and of their exploration by the French Canadians.

E. J. F.

1723.—Letter from M. de Bienville, dated 20th June, 1722, announcing the order of the viceroy of Mexico for the cession of Pensacola to Spain. This letter is accompanied by the order of the king of France.

1724.—Prices fixed for merchandise tendered by the inhabitants in payment of debts to the West India Company.

1721.—Documents relative to the beaver trade in Canada; petition against the monopoly of that trade.

1725.—Sundry letters relative to the war with the Renards.

HUMBUGIANA.

Aristotle, one of the greatest intelligences that ever appeared in the world, asserted that *incredulity* is the foundation of all wisdom. Had the good old gentleman, whose philosophy maintained such an unlimited sway over the human mind for centuries, lived in the age in which we live, there is little doubt but his opinion would undergo a change, and he might probably declare it to be more in accordance with the experience and temper of mankind to say, that *credulity* is the foundation of all folly. To investigate the gradual development of rational belief would be, to the philosophic mind, a useful and an interesting employment, and the investigation would disclose to us much of the duplicity, deception, fanaticism, and bigotry of our species. We would find error borrowing something of truth, in order to make her pass off more readily; we would discover the subtlety of grand deceivers, and impostors, grafting their greatest errors on some well-known palpable truth, and we might learn from the investigation, that all men entertain and are influenced by opinions to a much greater extent than persons unacquainted with self-examination are aware, and we might perceive the necessity of rigidly examining every opinion or sentiment, before it is adopted as a principle from which any conclusion is to be drawn.

We all know how prone the mind is to believe that for which it most anxiously wishes. As Prince Henry, believing his father dead, took the crown from his pillow, the king in reproach said to him:

"Thy *wish* was, Harry, father to that thought."

Our judgments are often perverted by our affections and passions. Of whatever nature the passion may be, it prevents us from seeing clearly the object by which it is excited. If we love, we cannot see the faults, and if we hate, we cannot see the beauties of the object contemplated. If we hope, or earnestly desire a thing, we easily believe that it will be enjoyed; but if we fear, we magnify difficulties that are real, and actively employ our imagination in conjuring up such as are chimerical. But it is not the object in this article to trace the causes which might be assigned for the constant disposition of mankind toward credulity. They are many and contradictory. The object is to turn the attention to the fact, that, in this enlightened age—this nineteenth century—men too readily believe without evidence or examination, and are almost as easily gulled as were our ancestors in the days of Joanna Southcott. If anything peculiarly

marks the present age, it is the prevalence of imposture, and the very great readiness with which men and women, and sensible ones too, allow themselves to be beguiled by the assumptions of ignorance, and the tricks of quackery. There is scarcely a single province of human speculation or action which the disciple of charlatanism does not occupy, in which the meretricious is not put for that which is genuine, and in which falsehood does not ape the garb, the language, and the actions of truth. To point out and expose completely every deception that exists is almost impossible. It would be a task not easily executed. Number the leaves of the forest—count the grains of sand on the desert if you can; and then attempt to number the impositions that have been practised upon the credulous and the simple in every age

In imitation of a good old-fashioned plan, before entering on the examination of the above-mentioned, we will inquire into the etymology of the word. The word *Humbug* is not found in our common dictionaries, and like the word hoax, and a few others that have crept into daily use, their meanings are well understood without the aid of a lexicographer.

The word in question comes from a celebrated professor of the healing art, a German, of the name of Hombog, who made a considerable figure some years ago in diffusing his manifestoes through the medium of the newspapers. In order to show the estimation in which Doctor Hombog was held, a few of the shortest of the certificates addressed to the illustrious perfecter of his system may be given. They are as follows, and the cures are really remarkable

DEAR DOCTOR,

I was stone blind for sixteen years, and tried every medicine in vain, until I purchased a bottle of your invaluable mixture, and by merely looking at it was restored to sight immediately.

Your grateful friend,

JAMES STOW.

MY DEAR VON HOMBOG,

Some ten years since I was so unfortunate as to catch the *mania à potu*, along with another dreadful disease. I was sent to the hospital, but received no benefit from the prescriptions of the doctors, and was sent home. My wife heard of your invaluable medicine, and by her shouting six times in my ears "*Von Hombog's Mixture*," I was cured. Yours ever,

J. DEWBERRY.

DEAR DOCTOR,

For twenty years I was deaf as a door-post. Nothing gave me relief. Bought a bottle of your medicine. Smelt the cork, and was as sound as a trout. FREDERICK STRETCHER.

DEAREST DOCTOR,

I was blown up by the explosion of a powder mill, a short time ago; when, happening to remember that I had some of your mixture about the house, I took but one drink, and came down light as a feather. JAMES AIRY.

These are but a few of the seven hundred and ninety-one thousand

certificates which, in the month of March, 1837, had already been filed, yet they will give some faint idea of the universal usefulness of the mixture for all diseases which afflict the human family. We make no remarks upon the certificates; the style is good, and if true that the mixture did so much, there is no doubt but the sales would be large.

I. And, first, of our subject in relation to MEDICINE. Medicine is, or ought to be a science.

For the Medical profession we have the highest possible respect. No class of men are more important benefactors of mankind. Nowhere have been found more illustrious instances of knowledge, talent, devotedness, and philanthropy. Not the less, however, has that honorable profession been infested by quackery and humbug. Nor has this been confined to that despicable class of quacks, who, without knowledge or experience, or a single qualification for the healing art, foist their odious drugs upon a credulous public, and live by the miseries and gullibility of mankind. Such thin-skinned monsters of "the ooze and the mire" are impervious to every weapon, and insensible to all shame.

What, then, is a QUACK? A quack is one who sells a pretended nostrum, the preparation of which is kept secret, but the term may be applied to every practitioner who, by pompous pretences, mean insinuations, and indirect promises, endeavors to obtain that confidence which neither success nor experience entitles him to. There is no disease of dreaded name for which the quack cannot furnish a cure. Asthma and consumption are disarmed of their terrors; gout is now but a harmless bugbear; and if any suffer or die of cancer, it must be the fault of their own obstinacy or incredulity. The diseases of children, with such savans, need give little concern; there are anodynes which allay the pain of teething; there are worm lozenges which no reptile can resist, and there are cosmetics which infallibly cure and beautify the skin. Laborious investigation of the causes of disease is unnecessary; the quack doctor does not wait to see his patient, who has only to send a letter describing his case, with the *usual fee*, of course, and the remedy will find its way to the most distant corner in the Union. Even this trouble may often be dispensed with; a patient has merely to consider for himself whether his skin or his stomach is in fault, and pills, and cordials, and balsams of unerring efficacy are to be found in every village and town ready to his hand.

Of the truth of these statements there cannot be a doubt, as numberless cases are to be seen every day attested in our newspapers, by those who have tried them, and whose benevolence prompts them to publish, for the benefit of mankind, the advantages they have experienced in themselves or their families. Let us look into this for a moment. These attestations, though honestly given, are given generally in ignorance. A person is afflicted with a certain combination of symptoms to which medical men, or the unskilled, assign a particular name, as fever, dropsy, scurvy: he recovers his health after the use of some particular medicine, and is perfectly convinced the medicine cured him. He rejoices in his success, and confidently recommends the same drug to his friend, who is said to labor under the

same disease. But there is here a double fallacy. The first patient cannot be sure that he had the disease he supposes, and he cannot be certain that the remedy cured him. As it is doubtful whether the second patient is afflicted in a similar way, the same medicine may not be applicable to him.

When we consider the endless variety of the human constitution, its delicate and almost evanescent changes in health and disease, it must be obvious that a remedy which will suit one person may be very unfit for another; and that a medicine which to-day is salutary may be attended with disastrous results if repeated to-morrow. In popular language, and even in the language of physicians, it may be said with truth, that ten persons have the same disease, as small-pox, fever, or a cold, but it will require correct and accurate observation to discriminate the differences of each, and to apply the remedies which are proper to them. But by the same patent medicine, and in the same dose, 80,000 cases are said to be cured in a year; and patients indiscriminately are invited to apply a composition in a case which they call a disease of some particular name, though a skilful physician would consider a totally opposite remedy as necessary.

Besides, there is something in the moral aspect of a secret remedy that ought to put mankind on their guard against it. The possession of health is to all so valuable, pain and suffering are so dreadful, that it is the duty of every one to communicate every assistance in his power to relieve it. With all the industry and accumulated knowledge of ages, there are too many diseases which baffle all the skill of the profession, and there must be something suspicious about those who, affirming themselves to be in possession of a remedy for cancer or consumption, conceal the knowledge of it to their own bosoms. It may be asserted then with perfect safety, that credulity with respect to quack medicines, is not free from danger. We know that there are some patent medicines which are harmless and insignificant, and their only effect is to amuse the patient with delusive hopes, and to trifle away the time during which the constitution could bear the employment of active remedies. To acquire a competent knowledge of the structure of the human frame, to become acquainted with the diseases to which it is liable, and the remedies for these diseases, require study and talent; and it is matter of regret that the course of education requisite to obtain a license to experiment on the bodies of our fellow-creatures, is so circumscribed. We hope the time has come when it will be decreed that the course of education necessary for the medical profession will be more liberal and enlarged; and since it is considered one of the learned professions, *let its professors therefore be learned.*

In our next we shall resume the subject in its relation to education.

MERCANTILE AND AGRICULTURAL MISCELLANIES.

1.—CHARLESTON CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

Officers.

KER BOYCE, President. GEO. A. TRENHOLM, 2d Vice-President.
CHAS. EDMONDSTON, 1st Vice-President. W. B. HERIOT, Secretary and Treasurer.

Committee of Appeals.

B. J. HOWLAND, E. P. STARR,
J. C. LEVY, JAMES ADGER,
W. PATTON, C. T. LOWNDES.

TARIFF OF COMMISSIONS AND CHARGES.

Commissions—Maximum Rates.

	per cent.
On the purchase and shipment of produce on foreign account	2½
On drawing bills for the same	2½
On the purchase and shipment of produce on domestic account	2½
On drawing bills for the same	1
On the purchase and shipment of produce, either on foreign or domestic account, with funds in hand	2½
On sales of foreign consignments	5
On guaranty of the same	2½
On remitting the proceeds of sales in produce	2½
" " " in bills, with guaranty	2½
" " " in bills, without guaranty	1
On procuring freights	5
On collecting "	2½
On ships' disbursements, with funds in hand	2½
" " drawing bills	5
For endorsing bills of exchange (domestic)	2½
" " " (foreign)	2½
On goods consigned to, or lodged with merchants for sale, and afterward ordered to be re-shipped or delivered up, on the amount of invoice	2½
For forwarding goods, 25 cents per package.	
On effecting insurance, on amount insured	½
On recovering losses, if litigated	5
" " without litigation, if under acceptance	2½
" " " " if not under acceptance	1
On collecting money by power of attorney, if litigated	5
" " " " without litigation	2½
On cargoes of vessels in distress, where the goods are bonded, lodged in the custom house, or stored and afterward re-shipped, on amount of invoice (except on jewelry and specie)	2½
On jewelry and specie	½
On collecting bills of exchange	½
On remitting for the same in bills, without guaranty	½

Revised, October, 1843.

Shipping Charges.

The shipping charges on Cotton are:

Brokerage	12½	cents per bale.
Marking	2	" "
Mending	4	" "
Mending, furnishing bagging and twine	10	" "
Drayage	6¼	" "
Wharfage	4	" "

The shipping charges on Rice are:

Brokerage, whole casks	12½	cents each.
" half casks	6¼	" "
Marking casks, half casks, and bags	2	" "

Drayage, whole casks	6¼ @ 12½	cents	each.
" half casks	4¼ @ 8½	"	"
" bags	1¼ @ 2½	"	"
Cooperage, casks and half casks	14	"	"
" " filling up and extra hooping	20	"	"
Starting into half casks	$1 00	per	cask.
" " bags, and sewing	1 00	"	"
Wharfage, whole and half casks	4	cents	each.
" bags	1	"	"

And storage, while awaiting shipment, of 8 cents per week on bales, and whole and half casks, for the first and last weeks, and 4 cents for all the intermediate weeks.

On all other goods, the charges actually paid in each particular case.

Adopted, October, 1843.

Standard of Freights.

When vessels are freighted by the ton, and no special agreement is made respecting the proportion of tonnage, the following standard shall regulate, viz., that the articles, the bulk of which shall compose a ton, to equal a ton of heavy materials, shall be in weight as follows:

Coffee, in casks, 1568 lbs. net; in bags, 1830 lbs. net.

Cocoa, in casks, 1120 lbs. net; in bags, 1307 lbs. net.

Pimento, in casks, 952 lbs. net; in bags, 1100 lbs. net.

All heavy goods, as bar, pig and rod iron, 2240 lbs. net.

All heavy dye-woods, rice, sugar, and all other heavy goods, 2240 lbs. net.

Flour, of 1¼ cwt., 8 barrels.

Beef, pork, fish (pickled), tallow, 6 barrels,

Pitch, tar, and turpentine, of the capacity of 32 gallons each, 6 barrels.

Oil, wine, brandy and other liquors, reckoning the full contents of casks, 200 gallons.

Grain, in casks, 22 bushels.

Salt, in casks, fine, 36; coarse, 31 bushels.

Sea coal, 29 bushels.

Mahogany, square timber, plank, boards, bale goods and dry goods, in casks, boxes and trunks, 40 cubic feet.

Dried hides, 1120 lbs. net.

Raw Silk, 896 lbs. net.

Tobacco, ton, 1600 lbs. net.

Adopted, March, 1833.

Measurement of Goods.

Goods of Measurement on freight from other ports, delivered here, if deemed incorrectly measured, may be re-measured here by the Port Wardens, or other proper persons agreed on for that purpose, whose measurement shall be final and conclusive, and the charge incurred by measuring shall be paid by him who is found in error.

Adopted, March, 1823.

Losses on Goods by Fire, &c., and by Bad Debts.

Loss of goods arising from fire, robbery, theft, or accident, shall in all cases be borne by the owner thereof; unless a breach of orders to insure has been made, or negligence and inattention practised by the consignee or his agents.

Losses by bad debts in the sale of goods shall always be borne by the owners, unless sold contrary to written orders, or there be an express agreement to guaranty.

Adopted, March, 1823.

Goods sold by Weight and by the Thousand.

Goods sold by the weight to be sold by the 100 lbs., instead of 112 lbs.; or by the ton of 2,000 lbs., instead of 2,240 lbs.—*Adopted, March*, 1835.

Staves, hoops, &c., by the short thousand.—*Adopted, May*, 1839.

Custom as to the Staple Productions of the State.

RICE.—The standard weight of a barrel is 600 lbs. net. When a wharfinger weighs a barrel, the turn of the scale is allowed, and a draft of 4 lbs. per barrel. The tare is ascertained by weighing three barrels of a small parcel, and five of a large parcel, if required. The purchaser pays 50 cents for each barrel, and for

any re-cooperage after having been once coopered, unless a special agreement is made to the contrary.

COTTON.—In bags and square bales, turn of the scale and one per cent. draft, but no tare for all necessary baling and roping, except for wooden hoops, the actual tare of which is allowed.—*Adopted, March*, 1825.

What shall be a Delivery of Goods by the Master of a Vessel

In the absence of any express law on the subject, the Chamber recommends that the following regulations be adopted by all interested.

That a notification in all the daily newspapers of the city, or other proper notice be given by the consignees or agents of vessels, at what time a vessel will be ready to discharge, and at what wharf; stating, also, that if goods shall be landed, and not taken in charge by the consignee or his agent, the master or agent of the vessel shall, at sunset, put such goods into the charge and possession of the Wharfinger, who shall then store the same, at the expense and risk of the respective owners or claimants; and such delivery shall be sufficient to discharge the master from all future responsibility, and entitle him to his freight money.

That in order more effectually to prevent disputes in regard to the proper delivery of goods from along-side the discharging vessel, it be recommended to ships' agents to have, respectively, a clerk to deliver the goods, and to record the same in a book to be kept for that purpose. When goods are to be delivered to a drayman, an order shall be written by the consignee for such delivery, in which shall be inserted the name of the drayman and the number of his license.

Adopted 8th February, 1839.

Drafts and Tares to be allowed to the Purchasers of Imported Articles for internal consumption.

Sugars, in hhds., ½ per cent. draft, and 12 per cent. tare.
Sugars, in boxes, ½ per cent. draft, and 15 per cent. tare.
Sugars, in flour barrels, ½ per cent. draft, and 20 lbs. each, tare.
Sugars, in flour barrels, ½ per cent. draft, and (if filled in Charleston) 18 lbs. each, tare.
Sugars, in bags of grass, ½ per cent. draft, and 2 per cent. tare.
Sugars, in mats or bales, ½ per cent. draft, and 2 per cent. tare
Coffee, in hhds., ½ per cent. draft, and 12 per cent. tare.
Coffee, in flour barrels, ½ per cent. draft, and 18 lbs. per barrel.
Coffee, in bags of grass, ½ per cent. draft, and 2 per cent. tare.
Coffee, in bags of linen, 2 per cent. tare.
Coffee, in mats or bales, ½ per cent. draft, and 3 per cent. tare.
Cocoa, in casks, Custom House draft, and 10 per cent. tare.
Cocoa, in bags of linen, 2 per cent. tare.
Pimento, in bags of linen, 2 per cent. tare.
Pimento, in casks, Custom House draft, and 16 per cent. tare.
Pepper, in bags of linen, 2 per cent. tare.
Teas, Custom House draft and tare.
Indigo, of foreign growth, Custom House draft, Tare in casks, 15 per cent.; in barrels, 12 per cent.; in seroons, 10 per cent.; in bags, 3 per cent.
Cotton, of foreign growth, covered with linen, Custom House draft, 2 per cent. tare.
All other articles, Custom House draft and tare.
Cheese, Candles, Chocolate, Soap, and all small articles sold by weight, the actual tare.
Liquors are gauged by Gunter's scale, agreeably to the act of Congress.
Revised, May, 1844.

Custom House Drafts and Tares.

DRAFTS.

The following allowances are made by law for drafts on articles subject to duty by weight:

On any quantity of 1 cwt.	1 pound.
On any quantity above 1 cwt. and not exceeding 2 cwt.	2 "
On any quantity above 2 cwt. and not exceeding 3 cwt.	3 "
On any quantity above 2 cwt. and not exceeding 10 cwt.	4 "
On any quantity above 10 cwt. and not exceeding 18 cwt.	7 "
On any quantity above 18 cwt.	9 "

Act of 2d March, 1799, *Section* 56.

NOTE.—When the draft established by law exceeds ¼ per cent., then the Custom House allows only ¼ per cent.

When the draft established by law is less than ¼ per cent., then the Custom House allows only the draft according to the Table.

The principle observed is, always to allow the lowest rate, whether it be ascertained by the per centage or by the Table.

TARES ALLOWED BY LAW.

On sugar in casks, except loaf	12 per cent.
On sugar in boxes	15 "
On sugar in bags or mats	5 "
On cheese in hampers or baskets	10 "
On cheese in boxes	20 "
On candles in boxes	8 "
On chocolate in boxes	10 "
On cotton in bales	2 "
On cotton in seroons	6 "
On Glauber salts in casks	8 "
On nails in casks	8 "
On sugar-candy in boxes	10 "
On soap in boxes	10 "
On shot in casks	3 "
On twine in casks	12 "
On twine in bales	3 "

On all other goods paying a specific duty, according to the invoice thereof, or actual weight.

On any of the preceding articles the importer may have the invoice tare allowed, if he makes his election at the time of making his entry, and obtains the consent of the Collector and Naval Officer thereto.

Act of 2d March, 1799, Section 58.

Presentation of Drafts drawn at sight.

Resolved, That it has always been the practice of the merchants of Charleston to pay on presentation, drafts drawn at sight.

Resolved, That in the opinion of this Chamber, this practice establishes the legal right of the presenter of a sight draft to demand payment on presentation.

Adopted May 21, 1844.

2.—QUERIES TO THE COTTON PLANTERS.

OFFICE OF THE COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

We have issued a circular to the planters of the South and West, for information in relation to the cotton culture, and have sent numerous copies to individuals, known to us either by reputation or personally. It is to be hoped that they will respond punctually and fully, as the article we design publishing ought to be as complete as it can possibly be made. The value of such an article all must at once appreciate. Those who receive our journal will aid us in these matters if they would have us elevate its character.

1. Is your cotton equally fine? what land yields the finest? what the longest staple?

2. The best *manure* to improve the cotton staple? the effect of different kinds?

3. The effect of old and new land upon the fineness or length of staple? size of bolls?

4. Does frost destroy at the same time cotton on old and new land? on which would you plant earliest? how does frost affect cotton on hill and bottom land?

5. The preparation of the ground for cotton? time and mode of breaking up the soil?

6. Time of planting? of commencing to pick? when through?

7. The number of acres you plant to the hand? how many bales you make to the hand?

8. The *kind* of *cotton seed* preferred?

9. The difference in the product of seed, taken from the bottom, middle or top of the stalk?

10. Seed taken from the largest bolls, and earliest open? any improvements of this nature you are familiar with?

11. The best means of preserving seed for planting? in confined or open rooms?

12. Is it preferable to plant with seed from the last crop? or with seed a year old?

13. Improvements resulting from a change of seed? how often to be changed, and in what way? from hill to low land, or the reverse? the effect of extreme northern cotton seed brought South, and the reverse?

14. The advantage of rolling cotton seed before planting? if in any chemical mixture, what?

15. What distance in the drill would you leave your cotton? what width in the rows?

16. Have you found any advantage in rows running east and west, or north and south?

17. Your mode of cultivation? kind of implements preferred?

18. Does rotation of crops improve your crop? the best system of rotation?

19. What your most troublesome grasses? the best cultivation to destroy them?

20. Does the cotton plant require much nursing? how soon thin it out after it is above ground?

21. Does the cotton plant require much rain? at what periods? the kind of season best adapted for it?

22. The average picking to the hand? how do you clear it of trash? the effect of the trashing machine upon the quality of cotton.

23. Is cotton best dried in the sun or shade? state any improvement you are familiar with in the scaffolding of cotton?

24. The most important quality in a gin stand? how many teeth to the inch? what width between the saws?

25. What description of press do you prefer? its advantages in power or expedition?

26. Have you tested the iron hoops, and the pressing your bales into shipment size? state the advantage or economy of this over rope.

27. Any other peculiarity or improvement in the culture or preparation of cotton for market with which you are familiar, please state freely.

28. State facts within your memory of the introduction, extension, and cultivation of cotton in your State.

29. What portion of its agriculture confined to cotton?

30. Your best cotton lands were originally how timbered?

31. What the greatest evils the cotton planter has to contend against in making a crop?

32. Your opinion of cotton in the place of hemp bagging? is it economy?

33. What the best average weight for bales?

34. What the cost of each bale of cotton sold in New Orleans? (include in this calculation the outlay for bagging and rope, or hoop iron, the freight to market, and the costs of sale in New Orleans).

35. What the cost a bale when you ship to Europe?

36. Have you tested the advantage of steam power applied to gins over horse power? How is the quality of the cotton affected by slow or fast ginning?

3.—WELL WATER IN THE LOWLANDS OF LOUISIANA.

Professor Riddell of the United States Branch Mint at New Orleans, made the following experiments and reflections, in relation to the subject before us, a few years ago. The well from which the water examined was drawn was situated at No. 328 Camp street, and ten feet in depth, lined with boards.

The result of an experiment on the 22d of September was, that by evaporation, a yield was obtained of one part of solid residue to 1200 of water by weight.

The result of an experiment from the same well, on the 29th of December, yielded one part solid to 1094 of water.

"The residue was an olive-colored powder of sharp taste, nearly one-fourth appearing to be organic and organized matter, such as the sporules or germs of algæ (plants like frog spittle), microscopic animalcules and their ova."

By chemical analysis, Professor Riddell was enabled to determine the presence of the following "acids and bases, which may be regarded as the mineral impurities of the water:" carbonic acid, muriatic acid, lime, oxide of iron, magnesia, soda.

"These various ingredients may be supposed to constitute the following saline substances: bi-carbonate of lime, bi-carbonate of iron, muriate of lime, muriate of magnesia, muriate of soda."

This water was not adapted for washing in consequence of the presence of iron in the condition of a protoxide, combined with carbonic acid, and clothing, upon being washed or boiled in it, acquired a permanent yellowish hue.

Professor Riddell farther remarks, that "the use of the water is objectionable, not on account of the mineral impurities, but in consequence of the presence of the organic and organized matters: most of which, it is probable, may be got rid of by very careful filtering."

"If a bottle of crude water be corked up, the process of putrefaction commences in a few weeks; after which, when uncorked, it exhales a fetid and peculiar odor."

We have long wondered that among the many wealthy planters whose fortunes are staked in the lowlands, there is not an individual in this entire district who has had the enterprise to try the experiment of *boring* for water after the Artesian plan that has been so successfully tested in Alabama and other parts of the Union.

The belief is induced by the contiguity to highlands of this strip of valley, having for four hundred miles an average width of about thirty, that good water can be procured at a very moderate depth. The hills bounding the lowlands are precipitous, and in height varying from eighty to two hundred feet; those on the left, the *bluffs of Mississippi*, are familiar to all our readers, while the right is bounded throughout its course with the high *pine hill region of the Ouachita*, being a continuation of the smaller ranges of mountains in the western and southern portions of Arkansas.

This range of hills is composed of immense beds of freestone, and abounds in springs of water equal to any in the world—the reservoirs that feed those springs, we doubt not, having their hundred shoots spreading in all directions, seeking the lowest level, might be tapped by the process suggested—the prospect of success is, we think, certain, and we are satisfied that an effort would well repay the enterprise of him who first attempts the experiment in the lowlands of Louisiana.—*Concordia Intelligencer.*•

4.—AGRICULTURAL SCHOOLS.

The Hon. Joel R. Poinsett, of South Carolina, in a late address, delivered before the Agricultural Society of that State, introduced some reflections upon the importance of correct agricultural knowledge, which we intended to make the basis of an article, but must be content at present only to extract, leaving the subject in full for another occasion. He says, The plain principles of agriculture might be taught in the primary schools, as is practised in some other countries, and the teachers instructed to avail themselves of every fitting occasion to communicate them to the people.

Every farmer in Carolina ought to be made acquainted with the process by which he may multiply the products of the soil, at the same time that he improves its quality and augments its capability to yield its fruits with ever increasing abundance.

He should be taught to what extent the cultivation of culmiferous crops in succession is injurious to land, and what description of vegetation ought to intervene in order to restore its fertility, the necessity of rotations and their most advantageous order; the importance of setting apart a portion of his farm for pasturage, both to support his cattle, and to give a rich dressing of green manure to his land when broken up for tillage; and, above all, he should be urged by demonstrations and arguments addressed to his self-interest not to cultivate more land than he can manure and tend properly. Every man, especially if he can read and cipher, may be made to comprehend how much more advantageous it will be to raise one hundred bushels of corn from five acres than from ten acres. The difference of work and materials between fencing five acres and ten, and that of labor in plowing, sowing, and harvesting, may be calculated to a fraction. He should be taught to estimate the real value of manures, that he may not be discouraged by their first cost, and to understand, when he applies them, that he is placing capital in the ground, the interest of which is represented by the increased commercial value of the product of his fields. A very moderate acquaintance with arithmetic would enable him to ascertain the income arising from such an outlay, but to do this accurately he must be made aware of the durable benefit of lime and some other

• Mr. Patterson, the editor of the Intelligencer, is dead. We knew him well, and admired him as a good man. His place will not soon be occupied by one so useful to the community, so elevated in his views, so devoted to the advancement of the great practical interests of Louisiana. His whole heart was bent upon these things, until they had become at last with him an enthusiasm, under the influence of which his constitution was impaired and destroyed. Death has closed the scene.

mineral manures, when applied to soils deficient in ingredients so essential to their fertility. The fertilizing effects of many substances that are generally thrown away and wasted on a farm, ought to be pointed out to him. How often is the carcase of an animal exposed, to be consumed by birds of prey, and its bones left to bleach in the sun, when the former would enrich the manure heap, and the latter furnish to the soil the most important known fertilizing principle, the phosphate of lime, a material so essential to good husbandry, that it is imported into other countries at great cost, and contributes essentially to the improved condition of their agriculture.

We shall venture to say that in no other cultivated country in the world are the carcases of animals exposed to be devoured by the birds of the air, and their bones left to bleach in the sun, or heaps of old leather, woolen rags, feathers, and charcoal dust, left to encumber the earth, when, if properly covered under it, they would enrich and fertilize the soil.

The farmer ought to be informed of the great importance of solid and liquid manures which he now casts away, and which in other countries are sold by the pound after being manufactered into poudrette and urate; and which he could render available by simply mixing them with sulphate of lime and sulphate of iron. He should be instructed when he clears land, how to make the wood which he now destroys and wastes, contribute, root, stem, and branch, to enrich the soil, by converting them into vegetable manure, ashes and charcoal: and, above all, the vast importance of durable improvements should be instilled into his mind.

5.—THE CITY OF NASHVILLE.

The prospects of the future connection of this city with the Southern Atlantic, by railroad, renders it an object of peculiar interest. We have been endeavoring to procure material for an elaborate history of the place, but thus far without success. We should be obliged if some citizen would favor us with a sketch, and also with a notice of the present prospects of the railroad. At present, we shall content ourselves with an extract from one or two papers before us.

The first is from a writer in the Charleston Courier, understood to be Wm. H. Trescott, Esq.

There is not perhaps in the West a more interesting view than that commanded from the summit of the Capitol Hill, in the city of Nashville. Covering the base of the hill, and crowding to the extremest margin of the business-laden Cumberland, is the city itself, its streets alive with the bustle of an active commerce, and its suburbs literally growing under the eye of the spectator. Surrounding the city with a border of beautiful cultivation, lie extensive and valuable farms, intersected by the numerous turnpikes, which, centering in the city, radiate to opposite neighborhoods; and girdling in all with a quiet security, rise a range of low and pleasant hills, covered with picturesque woods and graceful dwellings. But it is not so much the beauty of the prospect which attracts the traveler's attention. If he has learned anything of the country through which he has passed, and in the heart of which he stands, he knows that he stands in the midst of an untold abundance—mineral wealth forcing itself through the soil, and that soil ready to meet any demand which agricultural industry may make for produce.

The following is from the Orthopolitan:

Nashville is situated on the left bank of the Cumberland, on an elevated bluff of limestone. Few towns in the West present a more imposing appearance as the traveler approaches it from every side. The eye is delighted with the number of eminences within the city, some of which are partly covered with the native cedar, clothed in living green, which gives it a cheerful appearance even amid the dreariness of winter.

Around the city are a number of beautiful eminences, commanding an extensive, rich and varied view of the surrounding country from ten to fifteen miles in every direction; from Capitol Hill, within the city, the eye ranges over a large space, covered with rich farms and neat country seats, cultivated fields waving with that beautiful specimen of the vegetable world, Indian corn, and that valuable staple, cotton. These, if they do not indicate great opulence, at least bespeak that their occupants are in the enjoyment of competence, which generally produces a greater amount of true happiness than overgrown wealth. The contemplation of such a scene recalls the lines of Moore—

——"if there's peace to be found in the world,
The heart that is humble may look for it here."

We have among us many who are rich, but no *millionaires* who wallow in luxuries, and who look down with aristocratic pride upon those of humbler fortune, and who would, if they could, introduce those distinctions in society that would separate them from the "vulgar herd." There are but few whose actual fortunes would amount to the tenth of a million; they may have more in possession, but that possession is often accompanied by a slight drawback—sometimes called "suspicion of debt."

No town in the great valley of the West enjoys in a greater degree the blessings of health. Situated about 36 deg. 30 min., it possesses a temperate climate, and from its local position, it is free from fevers which characterize many of the towns of the West, particularly such as are situated upon water courses, and the lands about them subject to inundations. It is true that a small portion of Nashville, at the upper and lower ends, are, in times of high floods, inundated; but these inundations continue but a few days, and sometimes at intervals of several years, and produce no injurious effect upon the health of the town. Although the summer's heat is occasionally oppressive, the winters are mild and moderate. We have not the severe cold of the northern and eastern States, nor the relaxing heat of the South. Some idea may be formed of the healthfulness of the city from the following statement of deaths during the year 1845, which we take from the returns of the sexton of the cemetery, on the books of the corporation, by which it will be seen that the whole number of deaths was 244, in a population of 12,394.

7.—LATE SOUTHERN WORKS.

WRITINGS OF HUGH SWINTON LEGARE.

Messrs. Burgess & James, of Charleston, have published this admirable work in two large volumes, embellished with a portrait of the great Carolina scholar and civilian, whose fame belongs to the American people. We knew Mr. Legare in the days of his proud eminence, and when he seemed to have reached highest, his noble spirit went out in night. Few were there of the world's contemporary great men that could have vied with him in all that was lofty in attainments, and he seemed to have mastered at once the arts and sciences, literature and law—the whole circle of human knowledge. He might almost have felt with Manfred—

"Philosophy and science, and the spring
Of wonder and the wisdom of the world
I have essayed, and in my mind there is
A power to make them subject to itself."

And with Manfred, alas, that we must add,

"But they availed not."

Death, unscrupulous, relentless, acknowledges no claim, but strikes fiercely, as the Roman admonishes us,

"Æquo pulsat pede pauperum tabernas,
Regum que turres."

"To me," said Justice Story, in unfeigned grief, "his loss is irreparable. How few do I see around me of severe studies in jurisprudence, willing to devote their days and nights to the mastery and improvement of it as a great science, and looking to the fame that comes of devotion like his. Such study is not fanned by the breath of popular applause, and so it is rare. But in him it shone most brilliantly." Honor to the memory of Legare.

ELLIOTT'S CAROLINA SPORTS.

The Hon. Wm. Elliott, of South Carolina, an "hereditary sportsman," as he styles himself in this volume, furnishes some of the most admirable pictures that are to be met with in our language, of the exciting sports "by land and water." The sketches are chaste, thrilling, and to the life; and as we dwell upon them in rapture, we feel how much is sacrificed to the city, when we yield for it the joys of rural life, and the blessed health and ease of God's holy domain—the country.

8.—PRICES OF SUGAR, MOLASSES, AND RIO COFFEE, IN NEW ORLEANS, NEW YORK, AND CINCINNATI, 1845.

1845.	SUGAR.			MOLASSES.			COFFEE.		
	New Orleans.	New York.	Cincinnati.	New Orleans.	New York.	Cincinnati.	New Orleans.	New York.	Cincinnati.
Jan. 1	2¾@5½	3¼@5	4½@5½	16½@17½	24 @25	23 @25	6 @6½	6 @7	7 @7¼
" 8	2¾..5½	3¼..5	4½..5½	16½..17	20 ..25	22½..25	6 ..5½	6 ..7	6¾..7½
" 15	2¾..5½	3¼..5	4 ..5½	15 ..17	21 ..22	22 ..24	6 ..6½	6 ..6¾	6¾..7½
" 22	2¾..5½	3½..4¾	4 ..5½	15 ..16½	21 ..22	20 ..22	5½..6½	6 ..6¾	6¾..7½
" 29	2¾..5½	4 ..5½	3¾..5½	14½..15½	22 ..23	17 ..21	5½..6¾	6 ..6½	6¾..7½
Feb. 5	2¾..5½	4 ..5½	4 ..5½	14½..16	22 ..23	17 ..21	5½..6¾	6 ..6½	6½..7½
" 12	2¾..5½	3½..5½	3¾..5	17½..18	22½..23½	18½..21	5½..6½	6 ..6¾	6½..7½
" 19	3 ..5½	4 ..4¾	4 ..5½	17 ..17½	22½..23½	21 ..23	5 ..6½	6 ..7	6½..7½
" 26	3 ..5½	4½..6	4 ..5½	18½..19	24 ..25	21 ..22	5 ..6½	6 ..7	6 ..7½
Mar. 5	3 ..5½	4¾..6½	4½..5½	20½..21	27 ..27	23 ..25	5½..6¾	6 ..7	6½..7½
" 12	4 ..5½	4¾..6½	4½..5¾	21 ..22½	28 ..30	26 ..28	5¾..6¾	6 ..7	6½..7½
" 19	4 ..5¾	5¼..7	5½..6½	23½..25	29 ..31	28 ..30	5¾..6¾	6½..7	6½..7½
" 26	5 ..6½	5½..7	5¾..6¾	24 ..26	31 ..33	33 ..35	5¾..6½	6½..7¾	6¾..7½
April 2	5 ..6¾	6 ..7½	6 ..7	25 ..26	35 ..37½	33 ..35	5¾..6½	6½..8½	7 ..8
" 9	5 ..6¾	6 ..7¾	6½..7¼	26 ..26½	34 ..35	33 ..35	7¼..8¼	7 ..8½	7¾..8½
" 16	5½..6¾	5¾..7¾	6¼..7¼	30 ..31½	33 ..34½	33 ..35	7¼..8¼	7 ..8½	7¾..8¾
" 23	5½..7	6 ..7½	6 ..7½	27 ..30	33 ..34½	34 ..35	7½..8¼	6¾..8½	7¾..8½
" 30	5 ..6¾	5¾..7½	6½..7½	27 ..28½	30 ..32	33 ..35	7 ..7¾	6¾..8	8 ..8¾
May 7	5 ..6¾	5 ..7½	6½..7½	22 ..28	29 ..31	33 ..35	7 ..7½	6¾..7¾	8 ..8½
" 14	4¾..6½	5 ..7½	6 ..7½	23 ..29	27 ..29	33 ..35	7 ..7½	6¾..7¼	7¾..8½
" 21	4½..6½	5 ..7¼	6 ..7	18 ..27	28 ..30½	33 ..35	6¾..7½	6¾..7¾	7¾..8½
" 28	4½..6½	5 ..7½	5¾..7	18 ..27	28 ..30½	32 ..33	6¾..7½	6½..7½	7¾..8½
June 4	4½..6½	4½..7	5½..7	18 ..27	27 ..30½	32 ..33	6¾..7¼	6½..7⅛	7½..8½
" 11	4½..6½	4½..6½	5¾..7	18 ..27	29 ..31	31 ..33	6¾..7¼	6½..7½	7¾..8½
" 19	4½..6¼	4½..7	5¾..7	18 ..26½	27 ..30½	31½..33	6¾..7¼	6½..7½	7½..8¼
" 25	4½..6½	5 ..6¾	5½..6¾	20 ..27	28 ..31	31 ..33	6¼..7	6½..7½	7½..8¼
July 5	4½..6½	5 ..7	5½..6¾	20 ..27	28 ..31	30 ..33	6½..7	5¾..7½	7¼..8¼
" 12	4½..6¼	5 ..7	5½..6¾	20 ..26½	28 ..30	30 ..33	6½..7	5¾..7½	7½..8¼
" 19	5 ..6¼	5 ..7	5½..6¾	23 ..26	28 ..31	30 ..33	6½..7	6 ..7½	7 ..8¼
" 26	5½..6¼	5 ..7½	5½..6¾	23 ..26½	28 ..31	31 ..33	6¼..7	6 ..7½	7 ..8
Aug. 2	5½..7	5½..7½	5¾..7	26 ..28	28 ..31	33 ..34	6 ..7½	6½..7¾	7 ..8
" 9	5¾..7	5½..7½	5¾..7	24 ..27	28 ..31	33 ..34	6 ..7½	6½..8½	7¼..8½
" 16	6 ..7	5½..7½	5¾..7	24 ..27	28 ..31	33 ..35	6½..7¾	6½..8½	7½..8½
" 23	5¾..7½	6¼..7¾	6 ..7	25 ..27	28 ..30	34 ..35	6½..7¾	6½..8½	7½..8½
Sept. 1	5¾..7¾	7 ..7	6½..7	24 ..27	28 ..31	34 ..35	6½..7½	6½..8½	7½..8½
" 6	6 ..7½	7 ..7¾	6½..7	24 ..27	28 ..31	35 ..35	6½..7½	6½..8½	7½..8½
" 13	6 ..7¾	6¾..7¾	6½..7	24 ..27	28 ..31	35 ..35	6½..7½	6½..8½	7½..8½
" 20	6 ..7½	6¾..7¾	6½..7	25 ..26	28 ..31½	35 ..35	6½..7½	6½..8½	7½..8¾
" 27	6 ..7½	6¾..7½	6½..7½	25 ..27	28 ..31½	37½..37½	6¾..7½	6½..8½	7½..8½
Oct. 1	6 ..7½	6½..7½	6½..7½	21 ..24	26 ..30	37½..37½	6½..7½	6½..8½	7½..8½
" 8	6 ..7½	6½..7¾	6½..7½	21 ..25	26 ..30	37½..37½	6½..7½	6¾..8½	7½..8¾
" 15	6 ..7½	6½..7¾	6½..7½	21 ..25	23 ..27	37½..37½	6½..7½	6½..8½	7¾..8½
" 22	5½..7½	6½..7¾	6½..7½	25 ..30	23 ..27	37½..38	6½..7½	6½..8½	7¾..8¾
" 25	5½..7½	6½..7¾	6½..7½	30 ..31	23 ..27	38 ..38	6½..7½	6½..8½	7½..8½
Aver..	4½..6½	5½..6⅞	5½..6½	21½..24⅞	27 ..29½	30½..31⅞	6½..7⅛	6½..7¾	7⅛ 8⅛
Mean Average.	$5\frac{56}{100}$	$6\frac{6}{100}$	$6\frac{8}{100}$	$23\frac{15}{100}$	$28\frac{90}{100}$	$31\frac{8}{100}$	$6\frac{70}{100}$	$7\frac{11}{100}$	$7\frac{66}{100}$

9.—AMERICAN RAILROADS.

NAMES OF RAILROADS.	Length miles.	Cost.	Loans & Debts	Number of Shares.	Paid on Share.	INCOME. 1844. Gross.	INCOME. 1844. Net.	Divid. percent.
Portland, Saco, and Portsmouth	50	1,200,000	.....	.....	....	131,404	62,172	....
Concord	35	750,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	6
Boston and Maine	56	1,485,461	.....	.....	....	283,101	86,461	12
Boston and Maine extension	17½	455,703	unfin.	.....	....	.....	.....	6½
Boston and Lowell	26	1,863,746	.....	.....	....	316,909	147,615	....
Boston and Providence	41	1,896,125	none.	18,800	100	292,701	156,109	6
Boston and Worcester	44	2,914,078	.....	.....	....	426,437	195,163	6
Berkshire	21	250,000	not stat.	.....	....	17,787	.....	7½
Charlestown Branch	....	280,260	.....	.....	....	34,654	13,971	....
Eastern	54	2,388,631	.....	.....	....	337,236	227,990	8½
Fitchburg	50	1,150,000	just op.	.....	....	42,759	26,835	8
Nashua and Lowell	14½	380,000	.....	.....	....	94,688	34,949	....
New Bedford and Taunton	20	430,962	.....	.....	....	64,988	24,000	10
Northampton and Springfield	....	172,883	unfin.	.....	....	.....	.....	6
Norwich and Worcester	66	2,290,000	900,000	16,535	100	290,674	99,464	....
Old Colony	....	87,920	unfin.	.....	....	.....	.....	3
Stoughton Branch	4	63,075	unfin.	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Taunton Branch	11	250,000	.....	.....	....	26,687	20,000	....
Vermont and Massachusetts	....	.....	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	8
West Stockbridge	2	41,516	200	.....	100	.....	.....	....
Western (117 miles in Massachusetts)	156	7,656,202	4,656,202	30,800	....	753,753	439,679	4
Worcester Branch to Milbury	8½	42,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	3
Housatonic (ten months)	74	1,344,123	.....	.....	....	150,000	.....	....
Hartford and New Haven	36	1,100,000	100,000	10,000	100	.....	.....	....
Hartford and Springfield	35½	600,000	400,000	2,000	100	.....	.....	6
Stonington (year ending 1st September)	43	2,600,000	650,000	13,000	100	154,794	79,946	....
Attica and Buffalo	31	338,211	.....	.....	....	73,946	43,089	....
Auburn and Rochester	78	1,796,342	200,000	14,000	100	227,667	152,067	....
Auburn and Syracuse	26	766,657	.....	.....	133½	96,738	82,544	6
Buffalo and Niagara	22	300,000	.....	1,500	....	.....	.....	6
Erie (446 miles)	....	5,000,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Erie, opened	28	.....	.....	.....	....	126,039	59,076	....
Harlem	26	2,250,000	750,000	30,000	....	140,625	62,500	....
Hudson and Berkshire	31	675,613	.....	.....	50	25,039	1,789	....
Long Island	88	1,810,221	392,349	39,246	....	158,696	86,993	....
Mohawk and Hudson	17	1,817,893	400,000	10,000	100	79,294	45,763	....
Saratoga and Schenectady	22	303,658	.....	.....	....	34,686	9,455	....
Schenectady and Troy	20½	640,800	.....	.....	....	32,646	6,265	....
Syracuse and Utica	53	1,115,897	none.	16,000	62½	199,681	120,988	....
Tonawanda	43	727,332	.....	.....	....	114,177	75,885	6
Troy and Greenbush	6	180,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	5
Troy and Saratoga	35	475,801	.....	.....	....	26,502	9,971	....
Utica and Schenectady	78	2,168,165	none.	20,000	100	331,998	189,094	5½
Camden and Amboy	61	3,200,000	.....	.....	....	784,191	404,388	9
Elizabethtown and Somerville	28	500,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
New Jersey	34	2,000,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Paterson	16	500,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	6
Beaver Meadow	26	1,000,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Cumberland Valley	46	1,250,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Harrisburg and Lancaster	36	860,000	645,929	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Hazleton Branch	10	120,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Little Schuylkill	29	900,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Blossburg and Corning	40	600,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Mauch Chung	9	100,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Buck Mountain	4	72,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Minehill and Schuylkill Haven	19½	396,117	25,000	7,019	50	.....	.....	12
Norristown	20	800,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Philadelphia and Trenton	30	400,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Pottsville and Danville	29½	1,500,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Reading	94	9,457,570	7,447,570	40,200	50	567,613	343,511	....
Schuylkill Valley	10	1,000,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Williamsport and Elmira	25	400,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Philadelphia and Baltimore	98	4,400,000	.....	.....	....	.....	218,000	....
Frenchtown	16	600,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Baltimore and Ohio (1st October)	198	7,742,410	1,153,709	.....	....	658,830	346,946	....
Baltimore and Washington	38	1,800,000	.....	.....	....	212,129	104,529	....
Baltimore and Susquehanna	59	3,000,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Wrightsville, York and Gettysburg	12½	500,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Greensville and Roanoke	13	284,433	37,544	2,000	100	25,368	6,074	3
Petersburg	63	969,880	63,000	7,690	100	122,871	72,898	6
Portsmouth and Roanoke	78½	1,454,171	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Richmond, Fredericksburg and Potomac	76	800,000	.....	.....	....	135,943	85,688	....
Richmond and Petersburg	22½	700,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Winchester and Potomac	32	500,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Raleigh and Gaston	84½	1,380,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Wilmington and Raleigh	161	1,800,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	5
South Carolina	136	.....	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Columbia	66	5,671,452	.....	24,410	75	532,871	140,126	....
Central	190½	2,881,723	400,000	20,510	100	328,435	180,704	....
Georgia	147½	3,650,000	.....	.....	....	248,096	147,538	....
Montgomery and West Point	80	500,000	170,000	.....	100	35,000	15,000	....
Lexington and Ohio	40	450,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Little Miami	40	400,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Mad River	40	152,000	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	....
Madison and Indianapolis	58	212,000	50,000	.....	....	32,031	16,055	9½
Champlain and St. Lawrence	15	.....	.....	.....	....	56,000	24,000	....

Railroad Journal.

THE PUBLISHING BUSINESS.

Democratic Review for April.
Whig Journal for April.

THERE was once a time in Germany when no one could aspire to the title of gentleman—could have the enviable *Herr* appended to his name—unless he had written a book. For what we know, this unique custom still exists. Be that as it may, however, modern democrats seem to think and act on the same principle, evidently believing that they must appear on this "field of cloth of gold," before they can have claims to gentility, and if they do not always bore us with volumes, they do incessantly annoy us with tame and insipid articles in magazines. Originality of thought or terseness of composition does not enter into the refined conception of these periodical cobweb-spinners. Respecting the first they agree with La Bruyere—

Le choix des pensées est invention,

and with the latter they are entirely unacquainted. True, we must admit "the healthy excitement of composition," but an undue exercise of a weak organ is not apt much to benefit it, to say nothing of the organs of those whose unhappiness it is to be sympathetic therewith. We also allow that the amusement of boring the public with "linked sweetness long drawn out" is refreshing and predisposes to much inward joy:—just as one "whose virtues formed the magic of his song" has sung—

"There is a pleasure in poetic pains,
Which only poets know," etc.

And it is equally authentic that which another of the chosen few has sung—

"None but an author feels an author's cares,
Or Fancy's fondness for the child she bears;"

but still we deprecate this swarm of literary locusts which visit us in the present era of literature, and plague-like consumers of time, the means whereby we live. Writing has been so much reduced to a trade that Genius shrinks from the competition. Books are written on wagers, and *feuilletons* engaged with Dumas, alone sufficient to occupy all the leisure of a "man about town" for a period longer than his coat will wear. This is the age of pertinacity, mendacity, and superficiality. Goldsmith, who thought twenty lines a good day's work, would be laughed at in this age of telegraphic rhyme—and the work of years with Adam Smith might be reduced to days under the ingenious fingers of a modern political economist. To alter a couplet of Byron's, we may well exclaim—

"A man must serve his time to every trade
Save literature—writers are already made."

As the Goths and Vandals, who descended upon and sacked Rome, were allured thither by the taste of wine, so are the barbarians in authorship, who rush down upon us with weapons similar to that with which Samson slew the Philistines, fascinated by the nectar of applause. This latter commodity has been so profusely showered that the veriest poetaster who climbs an ant-hill, mistaking it for Parnassus; or the most impudent socialist who dogmatically speaks of Bacon as "the greatest and the meanest of mankind" (that quotation being about as much as they know of him or his works), have a surfeit of sweet-smelling savors thrown as incense upon their petty scribblings, and cry *Eureka!* in self-astonishment.

We wish not to be thought deprecating *all* periodical literature—far from it. The purest gems in the English language have shone in that form, and well we know that the first essays of genius have sought and still seek in that mode

"To climb the steep
Where Learning's laurels bloom."

We know that they foster talent, and encourage art; that they are the silver streams whereupon the modest man of genius embarks and trims his vessel for the stormy sea of literary enterprise. Therein he learns to cull the exuberance of his soul, fired by the *divinus inflatus*; and is comforted by the assurance that he has only to check his ardor, while thousands in the same arena are destitute

of it altogether—mere framers of sentences from habit and education, precise as they are unmeaning, and pointed in nothing save commas, semi-colons, and periods. We hope, too, to be understood, and not be considered as writing invidiously of the magazines which head these cursory remarks. We speak generally, and from the great ability exhibited in these reviews, we would rather make them exceptions than otherwise to the fungus periodical literature of the day. Nor do we confine our observations to the United States alone, but extend them to England and the Continent; everywhere is this morbid taste for quantity instead of quality seen and *felt*. But we have reliance upon the good sense of our community, and have no doubt that we shall shortly see the time when this feverish desire for the sentimental, flimsy, and the vulgar will give place to a healthy literary tone, having its origin among ourselves and pervading the whole American people.

The Old Continental; or, the Price of Liberty. By Hon. James K. Paulding. New York: Paine & Burgess, 1846.

This work will add but little to the literary reputation of its author. Apart from the redundancy which is exhibited throughout, there is a looseness in the style and occasional encroachments upon the refinements of the age; little, perhaps, to be regarded in a tyro, but which can scarcely be tolerated in one who has attained so proud a position in the world of literature.

We are unwilling to be persuaded that our author intended *seriously* to impose upon us the belief that the full measure of time occupied by Horace in preparing his Satires was consumed in the development of the portraiture of the "Old Continental." This may be so. Conceding the point, however, it argues a woful degeneracy from that elevated standard, to the erection of which he has so liberally contributed, and by which we must now measure this later effort of his pen.

However deeply we may be imbued with the reverence which attaches to great names, or the charity which inclines us to extenuate the faults that so frequently mar the finest efforts of genius and of art, a feeling of disappointment pervaded our mind during every step we made in the progress of the work.

Without a design to particularize, we would remark that the sketch given us of the fair heroine, is exceedingly common-place; and many of the similes are less refined than we were led to expect from one of Mr. Paulding's literary character.

The design and tendency of the work is to impress upon the minds of those into whose hands it may fall, a higher sense of the liberties which we enjoy, by sketching, with a faithful pencil, the privations and sufferings endured by the patriots of the revolution.

THE

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

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Art. I.—INDIAN CORN.

Our subject has only to be enunciated to commend itself at once to the attention of the reader. Its importance has been too much overlooked in the past. Upon the agriculture of a country must depend the main portion of its wealth and power, since in general the capital and population employed in this department of industry are beyond measure greater than in every other branch put together. The remark is applicable with ten-fold more propriety to a country like the United States, where commerce and the arts are but in their infancy, and where agricultural wealth loads the rich fields of almost illimitable territories. We have only to turn to the Mississippi valley, capable in the progress of events of sustaining as dense a population as any part of Europe, and be convinced of our resources. True as these things may be, however, it is equally true that the collection and dissemination of agricultural statistics have, in the multiplication of other demands upon public attention, been almost entirely neglected. What portion of our people really know anything determinately upon the subject at all. Ask, if you please, the value of each particular staple of the country—the influences which are bringing about a greater or a less production of a particular commodity, or leading to the augmentation of one crop and neglect of another—ask in fine, and what is perhaps of the greatest moment of all, the precise bearing of all the questions of supply and demand in the home and foreign markets which come up, and in how few cases will you be answered with any show of correctness? Nothing is more common than gross and even ridiculous blunders in these matters, published to the world in the most imposing forms and with all the character of authority. The sources of correct information are meagre in the extreme. Do we ask for our agricultural associations and journals. Have we such indeed, and do we seriously propose to sustain them at all on a scale commensurate with their merits? Has our newspaper press, scattered all over the country, and capable of so much, devoted, in its zeal after politics, more than a meagre paragraph here and there to the vital subject of agriculture? What has been the practical working of the great bureau of statistics, that we have heard so much about within the past few years? Must these things remain so in the future, where the means of amendment are so plainly within our reach? We propose the question seriously, and with some anx-

iety as to the result. For ourselves, our hearty co-operation is promised to any scheme whose end shall be to bring about a better and more creditable state of things.

In Great Britain, where matters of this kind are conducted usually in a manner we would do well to imitate, the public attention has been of late called more particularly to the subject, and no one can read the English papers and journals without being satisfied of the extraordinary care and attention which they bestow upon the collection and distribution of agricultural and commercial facts. The Economist, published in London, and one of the most valuable journals in the world, in one of its last numbers, has so fully expressed our views upon these points, that at the risk of unduly extending our remarks we will make a quotation:

"We cannot but regard as one of the strongest evidences of the perfection to which all commercial transactions are being reduced, the strong desire for accurate practical information on every subject relating to them. At a period when competition is becoming more and more intense, when intelligence of the highest order and of the most persevering assiduity is being applied to every branch of commerce, when the economy derived from superior knowledge, acquired in the conduct of business, is, in many cases, relied upon as the chief source of profit, the importance of an accurate system of statistics relating to trade cannot be over estimated. Statistical knowledge, or in other words, a knowledge of the facts relating to or connected with any article of produce or branch of trade, does not show itself at first sight, and none can appreciate its great advantage in the every-day practical transactions of business but those who have experienced its benefit. A familiarity with facts connected with supply and demand, with production and consumption, comes to the aid of a man's judgment in every transaction of business, and often when he is least conscious of it, and quite as often enables him to avoid a danger which presents a most tempting promise at first sight, but with respect to which a more intimate knowledge of the subject exposes some hidden fallacy or disturbing cause, as it leads to transactions of great and brilliant results. The great value, however, which we consider a knowledge of the facts and statistics to be to the merchant, is the assistance which they afford him in his daily transactions to form at once accurate decisions. In a public view, such knowledge is of great consequence. It enables merchants to act in every respect more in accordance with the general wants of the community, to provide against deficiencies by larger importations, and to avoid unprofitable gluts by an early reduction of price, inducing an increased consumption and checking supplies, and thus in every way tending to a greater equality of price. There is nothing which more strikingly exhibits the value of information, and the growing anxiety to possess it, than the great increase in the number and the improvements in the character of the mercantile circulars which are now issued from houses of business men in all parts of the world, and in respect to which London, Liverpool, and Manchester certainly take the lead. It is not too much to say of many of these documents which we are in the habit of receiving, that they discuss commercial topics with those enlarged

economical views which are in every way as well calculated to instruct statesmen as to inform men of business. As long as we see this spirit prevailing among our merchants and manufacturers, we entertain no fear for the commercial greatness and prosperity of the country. As, however, we advance to perfection, it will become more and more needful that every merchant shall become an economist as well as a politician, for the politics of the country are its TRADE."

To the agricultural interests more particularly is the importance of correct information on this point deserving of consideration. The great and distressing evil of over production would by this means be entirely prevented, and those extreme fluctuations in price, which are ruinous to agricultural interests. What is it that enables the speculator to exert so great an influence upon the agriculturist, but this very knowledge and skill of which we have been speaking. By means of it he is enabled to wield an immense power for good or for evil, but fortunately, in the workings of Providence, more frequently for good. We could illustrate in a single instance from Mr. McCulloch, where the effects of speculation prevent the ruinous influences of crops squandered away or unduly consumed and famines following the train of abundant harvests. In this way the speculator without caring a straw either way, really does prove himself a true friend to the agriculturist, and through him to the masses of consumers.

The farming interests are indeed exposed to vicissitudes, and it has been a matter of general experience in our own country that where prices are unusually high, the advantage has not accrued to the producer but to others interposed between him and the consumer. The commodity has been hurried into market and disposed of at prices such as it might command at once—the producing classes being in general those who are least able to hold back for better prices. In the Merchants' Magazine, for October, 1845, we have clearly exhibited the peculiar doctrine of prices as they are influenced by supply and demand. "The demand for less than 15,000,000 bushels of wheat from England, we are told, exhausted the granaries of Europe, and nearly doubled the price all over the continent. The continued demand maintained high prices, and the average for five years, ending with 1842, exceeded by ninety per cent. the average of five years ending with 1837."

This view is fully sustained in the opinion of Platt on the Corn Laws; of McCulloch, and of Mr. Gregory King. "It is a well-known fact in political economy that a small surplus maintained upon the market sinks the money value of the whole quantity to an extent many times exceeding the value of that surplus. It was upon this well-understood principle that the Dutch East India Company formerly consumed a supposed surplus of spices, in order to maintain the value of the whole crop. It is well known how small a deficiency in production will cause an immense rise in prices, as seen in the price of corn in England; and in the reverse, to what an extent a small surplus retained upon the market will sink money prices relatively with other values. Mr. Gregory King, in his computation of the land product in England, states that a deficiency in the harvest may raise the price of corn in the following proportions:

A deficit of 1-tenth, raises the price 3-tenths.
" 2-tenths, " " 8-tenths.
" 3-tenths, " " 16-tenths.
" 4-tenths, " " 28-tenths.
" 5-tenths, " " 45-tenths.

The production of a surplus will reduce prices in a similar ratio. This matter is made evident in the history of the flour trade of this country, as compared in the following table of the export of flour from the United States, with the average price from 1795 to 1843.

EXPORTS OF FLOUR FROM THE UNITED STATES, AND PRICE FROM 1795 TO 1843.

Year.	Barrels of Flour.	Price per Barrel.	Year.	Barrels of Flour.	Price per Barrel.
1795	687,369	12 00	1819	750,660	8 00
1796	725,194	16 00	1820	1,177,036	5 37
1797	515,633	10 00	1821	1,056,119	4 25
1798	567,558	7 00	1822	877,867	7 00
1799	519,265	10 00	1823	756,702	7 75
1800	653,052	10 00	1824	996,792	6 62
1801	1,102,444	13 00	1825	857,820	5 37
1802	1,156,248	9 00	1826	868,696	5 25
1803	1,311,853	7 00	1827	837,385	8 00
1804	810,808	7 75	1828	860,809	8 50
1805	777,513	13 00	1829	1,227,434	5 00
1806	782,724	7 50	1830	1,806,529	7 25
1807	1,249,819	8 25	1831	864,910	5 62
1808	263,813	6 00	1832	955,768	5 87
1809	846,247	7 50	1833	835,352	5 50
1810	798,426	8 25	1834	955,768	5 50
1811	1,445,012	10 50	1835	779,396	9 00
1812	1,443,492	10 75	1836	506,400	7 50
1813	1,260,942	13 00	1837	318,719	10 25
1814	193,274	14 50	1838	448,161	9 50
1815	862,739	9 25	1839	923,121	6 75
1816	729,053	7 37	1840	1,897,501	5 00
1817	1,479,198	14 75	1841	1,032,011	6 50
1818	1,157,697	10 25	1842		4 50

There is a fact deeply important and interesting to the agiculturists, which we would suppose them capable, to a great extent, of removing, did they fully comprehend the principles which influence trade. In years of unusual scarcity, the enhanced value of grain is felt most at the close of the season, on the eve of another harvest, and when the commodity has passed into the hands of the trade. We will support this fully from an authority, and draw our deductions from the fact hereafter. Mr. McCulloch says, "It is, however, in scarce years that the speculations of the corn merchants are principally advantageous. Even in the richest countries a very large portion of the individuals engaged in the business of agriculture are comparatively poor, and are totally without the means of withholding their produce from market, in order to speculate upon any future advance. In consequence, the markets are almost always abundantly supplied with produce immediately after harvest, and in countries

where the merchants engaged in the corn trade are not possessed of large capital, or where their proceedings are fettered and restricted, there is then, almost invariably, a heavy fall of prices."

How much of that distressing uneasiness, which often afflicts the public mind, in manufacturing countries in particular, for fear of impending famine, would be relieved, could accurate information be obtained by them of the nature of their own crops, and those of foreign countries. This dread of famine would altogether prevent anything like an equalization of stocks, and result in an unnatural expansion of prices. Families in Europe, we doubt not, laboring now under this fear, will, if able to do it, bring about in no inconsiderable degree, the very thing they dread, by buying up for consumption more than their usual stocks. It is known that in New Orleans, under the excitement of speculation, the present season, when flour reached $7 per barrel, the demand for families and bakers was greater than it had ever been before known. In farther illustration of this principle, during the last season, under a mistaken opinion that the quantity of pork put up was inadequate to meet the demand, prices advanced during the season nearly 100 per cent., while at the end of the season, it was evident that a full and adequate supply had existed. It is true, that high prices usually diminish consumption, but, from the best information we can gather, this was but slightly the case in this article.

To this may be added, that in the experience of all countries and more particularly in those where the consumption of bread-stuffs exceed the production, the public mind is most excited and sensitive on the eve of a coming harvest, lest any great deficiency, or any deficiency at all should take place. We see this in the complexion of the English journals particularly, and in the nature of their observations on the eve of each successive harvest. Various and contradictory opinions are passed, and intelligence received, and prices, stocks, and consumption share the influence of this vibrating sensitiveness of the public mind.

We have been led into this train of reflection, protracted perhaps, but not uninteresting, by contemplating the position of the grain growing section of our country at the present time, as compared with past seasons. We know very well that our farmers have been anticipating results more favorable to themselves than they have experienced in past years, and we have felt disposed to investigate and determine, as well as we could, with the information from time to time laid before us, whether these high anticipations are in any considerable degree well founded, or in any degree at all. We might take up the subject in any of its particular points of view, any particular commodity or crop, and by our investigation upon it, arrive at conclusions with reference to all the rest. We would prefer, for example, if the choice be admitted us, the article *Indian Corn*, more particularly as it is attracting so much attention both in Europe and in this country, on the prospect of its being made a considerably increased article of our foreign trade. The English papers and the English people seem to think that they have only to remodel, or remove their corn exactions, to introduce any and almost an indefinite quantity of it from America the present season. And not only in

England, but even among continental nations, the opinion seems well fixed, that with the removal of the heavy and restrictive hands of government, their granaries will, as if by enchantment, be filled to overflowing with our staff of life. Nor is this high-wrought estimate of our capacity to export, confined even to the other side of the ocean; we have in our own country, and in our midst, opinions formed and estimates made, differing in no great degree from those we have enumerated. To exhibit the truth of this observation, we shall content ourselves with extracts from two journals of high and influencing character, the one published in England, and the other in Philadelphia.

The London Circular to Bankers of Dec. 16, 1845, endorses fully the following extract from a communication received from this country, and in such a way as to leave no doubt of its full conviction of the truth of the statements made: "We have a letter lying before us from a faithful reporter, just received from Mobile, which states the produce of wheat in the United States to be 2,500,000 quarters, above the most abundant crop ever previously gathered in that country, an excess wholly available for exportation, *for the crop of Indian corn is in still greater excess.*"

Here there is a surplus of Indian corn from the United States for the present season, estimated considerably above twenty millions of bushels.

The Philadelphia Commercial List, of Nov. 15, 1845, edited by Col. C. G. Childs, to whom we are much indebted for assistance in preparing our present article—(a journal we heartily commend to every individual connected with the grain trade, characterized as it is in general by depth and comprehensiveness of research)—the Philadelphia List, we say, strange as it may seem, has fallen into the remarkable error of its English contemporary. Speaking of corn, it uses the expression, "the crop is now generally secured, and although deficient in some districts, it is, on the whole, an abundant crop. The aggregate quantity raised is about 400,000,000 bushels, or four times that of wheat. Although Indian corn is mostly consumed at home, yet, from such a crop we could spare to foreign countries 10 or even 20,000,000 bushels without difficulty. The crop of old corn is, however, altogether exhausted, and the new corn, now beginning to come to market, too green to be exported in bulk."

Now, whatever others may think of these estimates, or in whatever degree they may have been influenced by them, it is our opinion, and we shall proceed to fortify it by unanswerable arguments, that, instead of an enormous and unprecedented supply of Indian corn for export, *the United States for the present year will not have strictly available for foreign export more than the usual average, if indeed so much.*

We are not disposed to question the estimate of the total amount of the article produced, but for argument's sake will admit its truth, since it does not exceed the crop of the previous year, or if the late report of the public offices at Washington be relied upon, does not even equal it. In some of the States, the crop has been more than usually abundant, while in others, an entire failure has almost brought famine in its train. Balancing and equalizing these, a good average crop, upon the whole, would appear to have been made.

In the last Reports of the Secretary of the Treasury with which we have been kindly furnished, together with other information, by our indefatigable representative at Washington, the Hon. Emile La Sere, we have the following statement of Indian corn and meal, and other small grains exported from the United States in the two years, ending 30th June, 1845, together with the countries to which they were sent.

EXPORTS OF INDIAN CORN, MEAL, ETC.

Ports.	1843–4.			1844–5.		
	Bushels of Corn.	Bbls. of Meal.	Value of Rye, &c.	Bushels of Corn.	Bbls. of Meal.	Value of Rye, &c.
Swedish West Indies	1,225	1,456	$ 481	3,630	2,995	$ 1,032
Danish West Indies	7,087	44,976	5,032	15,443	46,020	5,498
Hanse Towns	....	....	578	....	....	100
Holland	....	....	144	....	....	....
Dutch West Indies	1,481	1,718	3,245	5,840	490	1,982
Dutch Guiana	....	180	306	....	....	....
England	78,725	29	8,996	134,898	1	26,538
Ireland	10,348	....	....	790	....	....
Gibraltar	200	....	....	1,788	....	....
British East Indies	....	....	....	....	....	178
Cape of Good Hope	70	15	....	....	....	24
Mauritius	....	25	....	....	....	1,180
Honduras	5,103	60	670	....	....	22
British Guiana	10,874	4,813	5,218	17,418	4,026	9,320
British West Indies	317,201	146,402	62,775	339,871	152,172	61,060
British American Colonies	167,246	30,492	13,074	155,217	45,082	10,197
France on the Atlantic	720	....	601	....	....	50
France on the Mediterranean	8,267	1,247	....	....	....	77
French West Indies	....	....	5,334	17,654	925	7,398
French Guiana	120	89	486	100	....	131
Miquelon and French Fisheries.	....	....	....	....	5	181
Cuba	61,347	5,748	6,819	67,596	6 248	27,681
Other Spanish West Indies	500	8,690	2,446	610	4,955	1,665
Madeira	10,321	....	....	30,499	....	198
Cape de Verd Islands	30	40	667	320	30	609
Hayti	....	78	821	1,435	402	427
Texas	300	40	682	5,217	6	3,758
Mexico	126,887	56	3,086	1,260	40	1,218
Venezuela	8,201	1,093	1,232	23,247	544	3,377
Cisplatine Republic	....	....	4,904	490	....	682
Argentine do	....	....	768	....	....	448
West Indies generally	8,429	159	3,149	15,961	335	5,329
Chili	100	....	....	....	....	200
Asia generally	200	....	....	....	....	....
Africa	....	77	118	30	41	3,649
South Sea and Pacific Ocean	....	40	63	....	41	634
Central America	....	....	165	....	....	....
New Granada	....	360	441	....	....	....
Brazil	300	....	1,152	870	107	740
South America generally	....	....	18	....	....	....
China	....	....	....	....	50	2,324
	825,282	247,882	133,477	840,184	269,030	177,954

The following table will exhibit the exports of Indian corn and corn meal, from the earliest records down to the year 1845, inclusive:

TOTAL EXPORTS OF CORN AND CORN MEAL FROM THE UNITED STATES FROM 1791 TO 1844.

Year.	Bushels of Corn.	Barrels Corn Meal.	Year	Bushels of Corn.	Barrels Corn Meal.
1791	1,713,214	351,695	1818	1,075,190	120,029
1792	1,964,973	263,405	1819	1 086,762	135,271
1793	1,233,768	189,715	1820	533,741	146,316
1794	1,505,977	241,570	1821	607,277	131,669
1795	1,935,345	512,445	1822	509,098	148,288
1796	1,173,562	540,286	1823	749,034	141,501
1797	804,928	254,799	1824	779 297	152,723
1798	1,218,231	211,694	1825	869,644	187,925
1799	1,900,492	231,226	1826	505,381	158,652
1800	1,694,287	338,108	1827	978,664	131.041
1801	1,768,162	919,353	1828	70,492	174,639
1802	1,633,283	266,816	1829	897,656	173,775
1803	2,079,608	133,606	1830	444,109	145 301
1804	1,944,873	111,327	1831	571,312	207,604
1805	861,501	116,131	1832	451,230	146,710
1806	1,064,263	108,342	1833	437.174	146,678
1807	1,018,721	136,460	1834	303 449	149.609
1808	249,538	30,818	1835	755,781	166,782
1809	523,049	57,260	1836	124,791	140,917
1810	1,054,252	86,744	1837	151,276	159,435
1811	2,790,850	147,426	1838	172,321	171,843
1812	2,039,999	90,810	1839	162,306	165,672
1813	1,486,970	52,521	1840	574,279	206,063
1814	61,284	26,438	1841	535,727	252,284
1815	830,516	72,634	1842	600,308	209,190
1816	1,077 614	89,119	1843	672,603	174 254
1817	387,454	106,763	1844	825 283	247,883

By an examination of the tables which we have presented, it will appear, that for a long series of years, our exports of Indian corn have been gradually decreasing, and that the total amount in 1844, was only one half so great as in 1791. The exceptions to this rule are to be found in the years, 1811, 12, 13, and 14, when all Europe had deserted the plow for the sword, and when immense armies required to be supplied from foreign sources. The average of exports in bushels for the last ten years, has only been 457,000, and in barrels of meal, 187,000 to all foreign countries. For 1845 the export only reached 840,184 bushels of corn, and 269,030 barrels of meal. With these facts before us, we might at once conclude, that the supply in our own country being the same, as we have shown, no very considerable increase in the exports could take place, unless influenced by causes at work in Europe, or in this country, of which we have not yet spoken. Now, without adverting to these foreign causes or influences at all, or pronouncing any opinion as to their nature and degree of force, if we could show, as we think we can, that there have been causes at work at home sufficient to call into requisition the whole product of Indian corn for the present year, we shall have fulfilled our promise made in a preceding page, and satisfactorily established the erroneous estimates of others, and, at the same time, the absolute necessity of correct statistical information in relation to our various crops—the main purpose of this article.

The crop of 1844 was almost entirely consumed between the home demand and the export. At the commencement of the current year, in the language of the *Philadelphia Commercial List*, "the crop of

old corn was *altogether exhausted.*" No better proof of this can be required, than the significant fact, that previous to any accounts from Europe likely to influence them favorably, prices actually advanced from 6 to 8 cents per bushel. We must not, therefore, in our calculation, make any allowance for available stock.

The question, then, before us, is simply this—and we shall discuss it fully in our succeeding pages—have there been, and are there now, causes in operation in the United States which would create a home demand for the whole supply of Indian corn, such as we have exhibited it to be?

In former years when our farmers looked upon the prospect of a foreign market for their product as almost a hopeless one, they found it a matter of economy and profit to convert their grain into live stock, rather than to dispose of it at the low ruling prices. The number of hogs raised in this country has, of consequence, been always very great, as we shall directly show; and, during the past year, much greater than during any previous one. The reason for which is as follows: during last summer, and particularly in the months of August and September, prices of pork continued to advance, until from $9, they went up as high as $14 50 and $15, the opinion gaining ground, that the whole stock of the article would be consumed, and that the prices would reach to still higher limits. Stimulated by this, and by the belief that an abundant corn crop was in prospect, for which there was no market, the farmers tasked their energies in augmenting their products of pork, and, in their competition for a market, increased to an extraordinary extent the number of hogs for slaughter.

In proof of what we have said in relation to the extraordinary quantity of corn consumed in this manner, we shall extract a paragraph from the *Cincinnati Prices Current* of a late date: "In 1836 there were 26,201,293 hogs in the United States. The number is probably increased to thirty odd millions. The amount of corn which this number of hogs consume must be over 200,000,000 bushels. To one who is unacquainted with the abundance of swine and the facility for raising them in the United States, this table must seem extraordinary. It shows that Russia, Austria, and Great Britain, having a population of 120 millions of people, have only as many swine as the United States with 20 millions. Eight Western States, with a population of six millions, have as many swine as Great Britain, France, Prussia and Bavaria, with seventy-five millions. The European States have not enough corn to feed them upon." Thus is it, that with the enhanced value of pork, the number of hogs has increased, not only in the Western States, but in all sections of our country, and, of consequence, the quantity of grain consumed in preparing them for market.

But there is another reason, and one equally, if not more influential, that the quantity of Indian corn consumed at home the present season should be vastly greater than that of the preceding one; and, in making estimates of the kind we are now employed upon, it is evident that no fact should be allowed to pass unobserved, and more especially, no fact so important as the one we are about to state. It is admitted on all hands, that the hay crop of 1845, one of the most valuable of our agricultural staples, has been greatly deficient. Prices

in consequence have advanced to a higher limit than for several years. Quotations in New York, Boston, and New Orleans, in January last, were very nearly double, and in some instances, quite double, what they were at the same period within four years. In New Orleans they ranged from 50 to 55 cents, in January 1, 1843; from 60 to 65 cents in January 1, 1844; from 60 to 65 January, 1845; and $1 25 per hundred January, 1846. At the present moment, the quotations are $1 12 per hundred, and high prices still maintained in the Eastern cities. Under such a state of things, it is evident that some substitute must be found to supply the place of hay; and what other substitute have we than Indian corn?

The winter from which we have now emerged, has been in all parts of the United States one of the severest and most protracted for a long series of years. With such a winter, and so late a spring, the difficulties of preserving stock could not have been otherwise than very great, and then only by providing them with the inferior grains in the place of their accustomed grazings. To show the full force and bearing of such a fact, we will introduce an extract from an able writer in the Merchants' Magazine for April, 1845. The writer remarks: "There are always local causes operating more or less widely to cut off exports. For instance, the winter of 1842-3 was unprecedented for severity; coarse grain and food for cattle in the Northwest were consumed long before the winter expired; and the alternative was presented to thousands of farmers, to lose their cattle or feed them on wheat. The writer has seen load after load of the finest description of wheat driven to the mills and cracked up as food for cattle and horses." We may infer from this, that the usual surplus must be small, when such a cause could be severely felt; and, also, that every cheaper grain would be called into use previous to the extreme measure of using wheat, the more particularly now that a resort to hay, from its scarcity and high prices, is in a manner prevented.

Here, then, are three causes, each important in itself, for a largely increased home demand for the staple we are discussing: 1. The unusual number of hogs prepared for market. 2. The greatly diminished hay crop: and 3. The influence of a disastrous and protracted winter and late spring. Did our population remain stationary, these causes of themselves would be deserving of the most serious regard, but when it is reflected that the augmentation of population is annually great, and that the experience of past years incontestibly proves that population gains upon supplies and exports, or in other words, that the surplus of grain for exportation has not increased in the same degree that population has. We will fortify ourselves here with a quotation in point. "For the period of fourteen years, from 1831 to 1844 inclusive, our exports of wheat have not increased so rapidly as our population. In 1831, with a population of thirteen millions, our exports of wheat and flour were $10,461,000. In 1840, when our population was seventeen millions, our exports of the same article amounted to $11,779,000. Thus, if we take the two favored years within the whole period, we shall find that the value of exports from 1831 to 1840 has increased only twelve per cent., while the population increased thirty per cent. Or if we take the period of five years from 1840 to 1844 inclusive, we shall find the export to have

fallen off about thirty-nine per cent., while the population has increased ten per cent."

It is very true, that at the time the very large estimates of corn for exportation were made, most of the causes of increased consumption which we have detailed, did not exist, and might not have been anticipated. The estimates, it is probable, were formed by some mere abstract rule of arithmetic, such as this: if a wheat crop of 100 millions of bushels give 5 millions of bushels for export, a corn crop of 400 millions must give 20 millions; a fallacious mode of reasoning under any circumstances, and more particularly under the circumstances of the present season.

Let us, therefore, refer to the facts of the case, such as they are exhibited in the receipts of corn upon the different public works, showing that while crops of this article have maintained the same proportion toward each other, surplus for exportation has not. If we take the New York canals in the past few years, we shall find that no considerable surplus of corn could have existed, since it is not found that the receipts of this article from all the north-western States have exhibited it.

RECEIPTS OF WHEAT, FLOUR, AND CORN, AT THE HUDSON RIVER, ON THE CANAL IN THE YEARS 1844–5.

	1844.	1845.
Wheat	1,262,249	1,620,033 bushels.
Flour	2,222,204	2,517,250 barrels.
Corn	17,861	35,803 bushels.

By reference to the statistics of 1845, it will be seen that while influenced by the existing foreign demand in the latter part of the year, the receipts of wheat, and flour reduced to wheat, increased upward of 1,800,000 bushels; the receipts of corn, though influenced by higher relative prices, increased but about 18,000 bushels. Thus, flour in the month of January reached $5 75 to $5 89 at New York, from $4 50 to $4 75 in July preceding; and corn 70 to 75 cents in January, from 44 to 46 cents in July.

The following table is compiled from the returns of the Collector at Buffalo, showing the quantity of wheat and flour coming from other States, and cleared at that office, on the Erie canal, during the year 1843.

	Bushels of Wheat.	Barrels of Flour.
Ohio	746,004	538,751
Illinois	444,961	11,998
Michigan	245,365	307,580
Indiana	175,098	29,721
Wisconsin	75,864	718
Pennsylvania	488	91
	1,689,780	879,859

TOTAL MOVEMENT OF PROPERTY ON ALL THE NEW YORK CANALS FOR THE YEAR 1843.

Wheat	3,132,200 bushels.	Indian Corn	287,033 bushels.
Flour	2,321,611 barrels.	Barley	521,458 "
Rye	65,581 bushels.	Other grains	859,866 "

Thus will it appear how small a portion of this great transit of agricultural wealth consists of corn, and how little New York can expect from all of those immense grain growing regions which we have named, Ohio, Illinois, Michigan, and Indiana, when a surplus of it is demanded. From these sources, and in that direction our expectations must be very limited, since giving 6,000,000 bushels of wheat, flour included, in one year, they only gave the insignificant quantity of much less than 287,000 bushels of corn, that amount including movements upon all the canals. To extend the table so as to embrace a series of past years, including those when prices reached their highest limits, will perhaps afford additional illustration of what we are upon.

CANAL SHIPMENTS FOR NINE YEARS FROM BUFFALO.

	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.
Wheat, bush.	450,850	898,117	965,000	881,100	1,207,125	1,171,851	1,679,724	1,777,615	1,770,740
Flour, bbls.	128,008	277,630	288,165	626,632	649,898	640,227	880,878	951,181	740,750
Indian Corn, bbls.	94,180	94,188	62,726	47,895	149,727	270,853	287,866	103,452	84,290

We have not been able to obtain any very definite information in relation to Pennsylvania, but what we have is sufficient to show that causes have been and are at work there tending to produce a considerable increase of consumption. A correspondent at Philadelphia, extensively acquainted with this branch of trade in that State, Col. C. G. Childs of the Commercial List, gives us the following, which we are satisfied may be relied upon: "A large quantity of corn is used for distillation in this city and suburbs; and there will be an increased quantity of corn consumed in consequence of the scarcity of rye—the price of that article being higher than usual. The stocks in distillers' hands are light. Easton, sixty miles up the Delaware river, has become a great place for distilling. In three days this month (March), we received 1,700 barrels and 90 hogsheads of whiskey from that place. There has no doubt been an increased consumption of Indian corn, arising from the deficient crops of hay and a considerably protracted winter. The stock of Indian corn in the city is believed to be as small, if not smaller than usual, at the opening of the navigation, and shippers have had already to supply a portion of their wants from Delaware." The increasing manufacturing establishments, the iron works and coal regions of Pennsylvania, would strengthen still more these statements, by showing an increased consumption from that quarter, however great the usual consumption may be.

From Delaware, according to the same correspondent, Philadelphia, as well as New York and Boston, may expect "rather more corn this spring than last, but from present appearances there will be an increased quantity of it converted into meal for foreign export."

Maryland and New Jersey present nothing very striking in our case. From the best sources of information—the Baltimore Price Current among others—we glean that receipts at Baltimore have been light this season, and, in all probability, will vary little from usual seasons. The crop of New Jersey is an average one, and her exports much about the same.

North Carolina, it is well understood, has always been, and is still, a great corn-growing State. Let us see what must be expected from North Carolina for the past year. Our information is sufficiently

full. The crop would appear to have been a good one. "The crop in Carolina is a large one," says a writer whose letter is before us, "and the amount shipped to this port (Norfolk) from thence, will be as large as that of the year 1845, although we incline to the belief that the aggregate amount to be received here will be less than the amount received during that year, owing to the fact that, in those portions of Eastern Virginia whence we have usually obtained shipments of this article, the supply is more restricted, and, indeed, insufficient for home consumption, and compelling them, to some extent at least, to look to this market for their prospective supplies." To set off against this favorable estimate, there is an item which does not appear to us to have excited sufficient attention. The production of naval stores in the old North State has received a new impetus of late, and the result for the past year has been, that labor and capital have been attracted from other quarters toward this, which must necessarily be followed by a decrease of the number of corn-growers, and an increase in the number of corn-consumers in that State. The Baltimore Commercial Journal of the 1st of March, remarking upon the turpentine region of North Carolina, says: "This part of the State has never, to our knowledge, been in so prosperous a condition as at present. Lands have risen two or three hundred per cent.; negroes have risen probably fifty per cent.; and labor is so profitable that the country is full of capital to make investments. At a late public sale in Wilmington of negroes, the average price paid for men, women, and children, is stated to have been $550. In the lower part of Bladen, hands are hired from $125 to $160. A gentleman who had gone to Wilmington to sell his turpentine, in pocketing $1,900, remarked that it was the produce of the labor of four hands. As a consequence of this state of things, and for the first time, probably, many persons from the upper counties are moving down. The tide of western emigration may be said to have ceased entirely." Another correspondent at Elizabeth City, North Carolina, after reviewing the agricultural prospects of the State, concludes with the remark: "I presume the quantity of corn in this State for export at this time, 1846, is less than in 1845, by at least one-fourth. About two-thirds of the exports are made in the first six months of each year, and the remainder during the other six months."

Leaving the Eastern States, we now turn our attention to those westward of the mountains, commencing with Ohio. The crop, it is well understood, has not been good, particularly in the northern part of the State. Emigration to the State is continually advancing. In the receipts of New York we may be considered to have treated partially of its tributary, Ohio; but the following table will still be in place, and not without its importance:

ARRIVALS OF GRAIN AT CLEVELAND BY WAY OF THE CANALS.

	1838.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.
Wheat	1,220,477	2,151,450	1,564,491	1,311,695	819,338	1,009,970	925,524
Flour	289,257	504,500	441,435	462,711	277,209	511,710	359,738
Corn	64,235	75,942	245,018	213,764	227,804	272,980	104,267

"This displays," says a writer, "a great decline in the trade of Ohio on her main avenues communicating with the lakes, and corresponds with the decline in the tolls on all the public works of the

State." On the Miami canal, at Cincinnati, the amount transported was,

	1844.	1845.
Wheat	13,272	6,404
Flour	133,544	121,723
Corn	82,863	49,950

In addition to the diminished crop of Ohio, the remarks made in relation to Pennsylvania also hold good, viz.: that manufactures being on the increase, home consumption is necessarily so also. The State, as we have seen in another place, is a large and increasing producer of pork, and is also largely occupied in the distillation of various grains. In the New York Shipping List, of December 20, 1845, we find a notice of the canal commerce of Buffalo, in which it is stated that the receipts of barley at that place are forwarded on to Ohio; and we know, as intimated in another place, that grain is imported from Missouri in considerable quantities to supply the distilleries there. We should not be at all surprised, indeed, if instead of having a surplus Ohio actually becomes an importer, as she has been before, of small grains.

Indiana and Illinois next present themselves. Of these States, also, we have in part treated when upon New York. Comparing the business of the "Wabash and Erie Canal," for the last year, with 1844, the receipts of corn are diminished, while other grains are greatly increased.

	1844.	1845.
Wheat	128,873 bushels	422,098 bushels.
Flour	10,422 barrels	23,714 barrels.
Corn	78,574 bushels	61,871 bushels.

These States are increasing rapidly in population, and will be treated of more at large when we come to New Orleans.

Whatever may be the surplus of Kentucky, Tennessee, Missouri, and Arkansas, it is now understood very generally, that, instigated by high prices and other causes consequent thereon, that surplus has almost entirely reached its market at this time; these States being situated more advantageously than those of the North-west, which must long await the opening of navigation. In fact, a highly intelligent gentleman, who has traveled largely in Tennessee, writes us from Nashville, under date 26th April: "Tennessee has shipped much more of corn this year than usual, and much more than she ought—being induced by high quotations in the earlier part of the season. Owing to the high price of pork, much more has been fed away than formerly. These causes have created a great scarcity throughout the State. In Nashville corn sells readily at $2 per barrel (five bushels), when formerly $1 50 was considered an exorbitant price. You may rely upon it, there will be no more shipped from this State this year." The same remarks, in all probability, will apply to the other States above named. We may, therefore, postpone a consideration of their surplus until treating of New Orleans.

We have been employed in exhibiting the condition and prospects of the corn-growing States the present season; let us now turn to the other side of the question, and look at those sections of the

country which constitute the corn imported, or rather, which provide the home market to their neighbors. We commence with New England, whose increasing and extraordinary enterprise, adapted to purposes of manufactures, creates for her immense resources, and enables her to hold out an alluring market for the produce of her sister States. A proper understanding and appreciation of this cannot but effect much toward allaying those feelings of jealousy and rivalship, which have sometimes displayed themselves between different sections of the country; and sure are we, that if correct statistical information were disseminated North, South, East and West, showing the mutual reliance and dependence of these great sections one upon the other, it would tend more to cement and bind them together in a common brotherhood, than all other influences whatever. Regarding it in this light, we shall dwell at some length upon the subject

TABLE I.—RECEIPTS OF CORN AT BOSTON.*

	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.
From New Orleans	36,733	466,566	399,750	33,063	257,657
Charleston	3,000	....	....	....	....
North Carolina	71,594	50,268	13 097	26,200	25,400
Fredericksburg	162 691	98 046	92,380	90,067	128,789
Norfolk	160 870	83,861	....	325,774	326,325
Rappahannock	50,685	59,180	19 400	65,960	94,683
Virginia generally	83,114	50,367	12,833	6,442	60,943
Connecticut	500	....	....	....	4,900
Rhode Island	500	....	....	....	....
Baltimore	537,956	324,482	378,839	664,524	638,620
Maryland generally	....	3,700	....	4,280	1,000
Philadelphia	559,511	343,715	298 841	395,325	470,049
Delaware	111,956	85,263	65,510	70,580	66,921
New Jersey	50,645	55,837	40,165	51,560	62,250
New York	164,404	167,222	137,726	104,256	122,719
Albany	12,792	14,690	13,816	4,295	....
New York generally	4,600	4,615	12,600	....	....
Massachusetts	....	3,300	....	1,500	....
District of Columbia	....	24,161	46,153	84,910	110,322
Western Railroad	....	....	8,004	2,636	808
Mobile	....	....	1,192	40	....
New Hampshire	....	....	....	1,000	....
	2,011,451	1,835,163	1,540,306	1,937,352	2,371,406

TABLE II.—IMPORTS OF GRAIN AT PROVIDENCE, R. I., 1845.

Flour ..... 76,579 barrels.
Corn ..... 755,294 bushels.

1845 AND 1846—FIRST QUARTER.

	1845.	1846.
Flour	3,367 barrels.	13,676 barrels.
Corn	130,946 bushels	119,652 bushels.

TABLE III.—IMPORTS INTO PORTLAND, MAINE.

	Flour.	Corn.
1843	58,584 barrels.	93,150 bushels.
1844	60,806 "	103,134 "
1845	74,447 "	153,764 "

* In 1837, Boston imported 1,735,436 bushels corn; in 1838, 1,574,038 bushels; in 1839, 1,607,492; and in 1840, 1,868,431 bushels.

TABLE IV.—IMPORTS OF CORN INTO PORTSMOUTH, N. H.

1843	104,000 bushels.
1844	136,000 "
1845	143,000 "
1846—1st quarter	32,000 "

The New England States operate as a scale to regulate prices of corn, and indicate supplies diminished or increased in the country, being the largest purchasers of that staple. Boston in particular attracts the first regard of operators.* By our first table it will be seen what proportion the city took from each of the corn growing districts in the past, and we have shown that with the exception of New Orleans, the present year, there is no likelihood of increased receipts from either of these sections. New Orleans has indeed up to this time furnished 300,000 bushels more than in the corresponding period of last year, and the result has been, that although prices have rated unusually high at Boston, and of consequence may be supposed to have attracted the utmost amount of imports, yet, in fact, the gross receipts have not been any greater, but rather less, nor are stocks there any larger (we are authorized, on high authority, to state, that they are much less) than in usual years; showing that the imports at Boston, from other sources than New Orleans, have fallen off. We shall see, too, that while an advance in the price of corn has not attracted additional export, a much smaller advance in flour has, as will appear by the following table.

COMPARATIVE RECEIPTS AT BOSTON FROM 1ST SEPTEMBER TO MAY 1, 1845 AND 1846.

	1846.	1845.
Flour	511,869	402,396 barrels.
Corn	1,451,000	1,465,000 bushels.

PRICE OF CORN AND FLOUR AT BOSTON FOR SIX YEARS.

	Flour.	Corn.
1835	$6 38 per barrel.	$1 00 per bushel.
1836	8 12 "	1 12 "
1837	9 50 "	1 13 "
1838	7 50 "	1 00 "
1839	6 50 "	1 00 "
1840	6 00 "	1 00 "

RECEIPTS OF CORN AT BOSTON FROM JAN. 1 TO APRIL 1, 1846.

From New Orleans	131,643
" Philadelphia	25,792
" Baltimore	18,042
" New York	3,666
" Virginia and all other places	37,650

The high prices of corn for the years just given, nearly equaling in some of them the price of flour, instruct us how great the difficulties are of bringing supplies to bear upon the wants of a particular market, and keeping prices down in that market, to the average remuneration of labor in the country. The prices above, were to the producer equally as encouraging, and yielded to him equally as much as the late and present Liverpool quotations do, which quotations appear

* From September 1, 1844, to September 1, 1845, the total exports of Boston were 33,901; during the same period of time, her imports were 2,667,955, showing the magnitude of her consumption.—*Boston Shipping List.*

to be thought sufficient to attract the high exports which we have seen predicted in former sheets of our article.

The receipts at Providence, by Table II., show a diminished quantity of corn, with a greatly increased one of flour, a fact not unworthy of note, when it is considered that Providence furnishes a market for three-quarters of a million bushels of corn. A correspondent in Maine, remarking upon our third table, observes that the consumption of Indian corn and corn meal for 1846, will greatly exceed that of 1845, in consequence of the injury sustained by the potato crop, an injury, by the way, which it appears that crop has suffered in many other States.

South Carolina has, to a large extent, been threatened with famine. In the far greater portion of the State, the corn crop has totally failed, and unexampled destitution been brought upon the inhabitants. The legislature was called upon for an appropriation of means for the support of the poor classes, and although it was not granted, yet committees were appointed throughout the State to solicit subscriptions for the purpose. In ordinary years, the import of Indian corn into South Carolina has been large, as we remark in the statistics below.

RECEIPTS OF CORN AT CHARLESTON.

	1844.		1845.	
January	42.100	bushels.	39,150	bushels.
February	20,850	"	29,925	"
March	29,300	"	48,350	"
April	19,700	"	14,600	"
May	16,350	"	53,425	"
June	28,100	"	15,600	"
July	42,600	"	31,425	"
August	18,925	"	53,700	"
September	9,850	"	41,350	"
October	1,200	"	3,900	"
November	13,250	"	13,100	"
December	49,950	"	25,950	"
	292,175		370,475	

If, then, with ordinary harvests, South Carolina has required, in the past, an average import of over 300,000 bushels, how large may be considered the demand of that State the present year, when, according to the best accounts, and particularly the last report of the Commissioner of the Patent Office, the crop has, from 13,646,000 bushels in 1844, fallen as low as 8,184,000 in 1845, or very nearly one-half.* New Orleans has already supplied the State with unusually large quantities, as will be seen by and by, and although the period for the chief demand has not yet arrived, even with these large imports from New Orleans, and larger ones from other places, the prices current from that place showed a continually augmented price. We have not succeeded in obtaining as particular information on the corn receipts at Charleston as we could have wished, but this we know certainly, that they are, up to this time, considerably above the gross receipts of any previous whole year.

* It is also worthy of note, that the rice crop of South Carolina has fallen greatly short this year of what it has been for many previous ones, as will be seen by a reference to the January number of this Review, in an article on the trade of New Orleans and Charleston.

Georgia, like her sister State of Carolina, has severely suffered from the extraordinary droughts of the last season. The Report of the Patent Office* shows a falling off in the Indian corn crop, of nearly ten millions of bushels; the crop of 1844 being 23,200,000, and that of 1845 but 13,320,000. The editor of the Savannah Republican, under date April 9, has kindly afforded us some confirmation of this fact. He states, that "hitherto no corn of consequence was carried to the interior of the State by the railroad, but from the shortness of the crop, freights were reduced upon this article one-half, and during the months of February and March, 1846, considerable quantities passed over, and the impression is, that the amount will be greatly increased during the summer months. The crop of the State, the last year, was certainly short from one-third to one-half." The stock on hand at Savannah is only 20,000 bushels, against about the same amount at the same time last year.

Alabama is presented next in order. Her crops of corn are never large enough for her entire consumption. The Commissioner of Patents also shows a great falling off in this crop the present year.

In 1844, she produced 22,200,000, and in 1845, but 16,650,000. Our correspondents in that State fully confirm the estimate. Heretofore, Mobile has made but small draughts upon us here for the article, and these have usually been during the summer and fall months.

IMPORTS OF CORN AT MOBILE.

1840	86,812	1843	111,712
1841	104,162	1844	108,875
1842	55,927	1845	135,712

We come to New Orleans. This favored city, seated as it were in the lap of the great avenues of Western commerce, occupies rank among the first in our country as an exporter of corn, and in the present season has borne the palm from all others. Having tributary to herself the wide Mississippi valley, rich in agricultural wealth, the whole surplus of this wealth is poured down upon her in liberal profusion. The statistics of the corn trade in New Orleans, as the statistics of almost every other article of produce, cannot but be deeply interesting, and shed a broad light upon all questions relating to the advance of our great and extended country. New Orleans may be considered the great and unerring index of the prosperity or the decline of that almost boundless region of country which stretches westward from the Alleghany mountains. But in our enthusiastic digression, we must not forget that it is a mere matter of statistical detail which is before us, and that it is a too common error of the human mind to over estimate that which excites its admiration. We do not inquire the capacities of the valley to enrich New Orleans. We do not ask how great an abundance of any particular staple, in some supposable contingency, it might supply; but we ask, in what proportion it has furnished, and will furnish, the present season, its surplus of Indian grain, in comparison with other seasons.

* Whatever reason we may have to question, on any particular point, the justice of the census estimates, there can be no reason to reject these estimates, when we find them sustained from other and authoritative sources. This is unquestionably the case in every instance where we have referred to these estimates.

We have before us a table of the receipts at New Orleans of corn for the last four years. To those familiar with the trade, it will be understood that these tables are not so much to be relied upon in making an absolute calculation, as in making relative ones. Corn arrives here in a species of vessel most difficult to be correctly reported, and much of it has been landed out of the limits of the city, where it has been beyond the observation of our officers. This error the present season has doubtless been much less than in any preceding one. Since that article has suddenly grown of such importance in public estimation, no pains have been spared in investigating the true and actual amounts. Were it not for this last cause, there might be a general reliance placed upon the comparative receipts, since the errors of each year might be supposed to balance each other. But such a comparison would now be incorrect; and the increase of this year, though great, might be found to an extent, we think, the result only of a more perfect system of reporting. A single fact will aid us here. In the year 1843, according to the New Orleans Prices Current, a journal decidedly at the head of that department in our country, and a most industrious and accurate collector of facts within the reach of observation, the exports of New Orleans are given as 1,680,765 bushels of corn, while the receipts reached in amount only 1,451,462 bushels.

RECEIPTS OF CORN AT NEW ORLEANS.

1842—year ending September 1	1,207,834
Received up to June 1st	978,243
1843—year ending September 1st	1,451,462
Received up to June 1st	1,047,908
1844—year ending September 1st	1,148,156
Received up to June 1st	1,000,171
1845—year ending September 1st	1,187,439
Received up to June 1st	1,054,553

By these tables, we discover that the corn crop, in usual years, is very nearly all at market on the 1st June; and by a reference to the arrivals of flat-boats, we find that in the year 1843, 341 had arrived up to the 1st June with corn, out of a total arrival, up to the 1st September, of only 387. In the year 1844, the number to 1st June was 278, out of 306 up to the 1st September; and in 1845, 842, out of 976. It would then be a most plain and simple process to compute the quantity to arrive at the port of New Orleans up to the close of the present season, if we were to give the exact quantity which has arrived up to the period of the publication of this journal; but a very important element enters into the calculation here, which will give a new and different result.

Equally true is it in the case of speculators as in the case of agriculturists, previously alluded to in the quotation from McCulloch, that there are causes frequently operating which force them to open their warehouses and hasten into a market. Speculators are not always capitalists: they must depend upon those facilities which the accommodations of banks and bankers will afford; and, however skilful in computing results, they are but too often forced into action by their exigencies before these results can be realized. It has been thus in the present season. In the earlier months, the prospect of a

free foreign market for Indian corn *alone*, enhanced prices and stimulated speculators. These commenced at once the most extensive operations throughout all the West. Liberal accommodations were furnished to them by banks and bankers in the interior, by negotiating, at short time, their drafts upon New Orleans; and, as a general thing, these drafts were accepted upon the expectation that the produce would be in New Orleans to meet them. Failing to be there at the expected period, it is a common expedient to negotiate other drafts sufficient to redeem the first. This process must, however, be soon interrupted; for, as the season advances, banks and bankers in the interior find it to their interest to curtail their operations and force the produce forward without delay, and without reference to the position of the market. But for this, the crop would have found its way, in due and regular proportions, to market, as the convenience or necessity of the producer might have dictated, or his knowledge of the exact nature of the supply and demand there.

The facts contained in the preceding paragraphs are sufficient to establish, we think—

1. That the corn crop of the West has been hurried into the market of New Orleans in an almost unprecedented manner during the past months of the present season.

2. That the proportion of the crop remaining yet to be brought, is much under the proportion which finds its way here, small as that is, in the same months of ordinary years.

There is one circumstance, not yet alluded to, which makes very strongly in favor of the position last laid down. Those arrivals of corn in flat-boats, which we might naturally expect at the city, will be arrested along the coast of the Mississippi, as we term it, by the demands of the numerous plantations there. These plantations, in the early part of the season, in consequence of the high rate at which corn was held, and the difficulties of procuring it from the Northwest on account of suspended river navigation, hurried into market all the corn they could spare, with the expectation of being able to purchase as the season advanced at much reduced prices. These purchases have yet to be made. Indeed, within a few days, and subsequent to our writing the above, flat-boats have been towed from the city up the river, and their cargoes of corn disposed of at plantations at prices greatly above present New Orleans quotations. These boats are now ceasing to arrive at the city, and find ready and favorable markets long before they reach here. The Planters' (Attakapas) Banner, quoted in the New Orleans Bulletin of this day, complains sorely: "Corn is now getting scarce, and if we do not soon receive supplies from the West, the price will advance. It is now $1 per barrel (of one bushel and a half), and quite scarce at that. In fact, corn is now in demand in St. Mary, and would sell readily. Cannot the western people send us in supplies?" The cause of complaint extends through a large portion of country.

Within a few days, there has been a complete stagnation in the trade of New Orleans; and the consequence has been, that corn has declined in value from 50 to 100 per cent. under the quotations of almost every other port or market. We shall not inquire at length where the responsibility for these things exists; but if it be found, as

many are disposed to think, in the defects of our whole banking system, it is worthy of consideration at such a time, how far those are right who advocate the alternative of *free banking*, or no banking at all. The question is mixed up with politics, and we shall not decide upon it, though it is one that deeply concerns the whole agricultural population of the West seeking a market here.

Admitting, as we have, the existence of a portion of the grain crop yet *in transitu*, or preparing for that purpose, or in the hands of producers or speculators in the interior, the question arises, will the whole of this apparently available portion in fact reach its accustomed market, or even any market beyond those of its immediate neighborhood? We are inclined to think not. The country we believe to be very nearly drained of its supplies of corn; the farmers have disposed of all that they could possibly spare, and in many cases, even more. These facts, known and admitted here, will soon come to be generally understood everywhere in the West. The natural effect will be some uneasiness of the public mind, increased by that sensitiveness of which we have already spoken, which almost always exists on the eve of each successive harvest. This feeling will suspend movements of corn everywhere, and will without any doubt occasion markets in the immediate neighborhood of its production. The home market has its preferences, and is always a better market than the foreign one. To all the towns and cities, small or great, of the Western Valley, as numerous as they are, these remarks have a more particular application. They are almost without exception without stocks, or with very small ones, and their consumption will have yet to be supplied. The remarkable fact is reported in the New Orleans Merchants' Transcript, of May 8th, 1841, "that some considerable parcels of pork have been bought in this city for the Cincinnati market," and that at a time when mess pork ranged from $11 75 to $12 per barrel, and bulk pork 3½ a 3⅞ cents per lb.; showing that the home demand in the interior could not have been well understood.

The increasing emigration to Texas, so greatly augmented of late, leaves that State dependent, and will leave it dependent for a long time upon the West, for most of its breadstuffs. Texas has already taken from our surplus here amounts which cannot be accurately ascertained, and which do not appear in the exports of New Orleans; the reasons being that the steamers are in the habit of making mere nominal reports of their cargoes, which are not relied upon. The army at Corpus Christi received all of its supplies, which were cleared under the head of government stores, and do not appear in the table of exports. As short as was the time, and as limited the forces supplied, the number of bushels of corn and oats taken from New Orleans is estimated above 100,000—other purchases having been made in the immediate neighborhood of occupation, thus draining that section of country. The demands of the Florida war, it will be recollected by all, enhanced prices of corn greatly at New Orleans; causing it to range for some time from 87 cents to $1 37 per bushel. The same thing occurred, to an extent, at the opening of the West Indian and Mexican ports, etc., giving rise to great fluctuations in the trade. The war having now broken out upon the Rio

Grande, and being likely to extend throughout Texas, and continue for some time, the large armies which must of necessity be maintained there by government, will require additional imports to an extent difficult to be computed: or, in any case, the maintenance of a peace establishment there will have similar, if unequal effects. But laying aside these considerations, peace with Mexico opens a still wider market for our grain: and that we may see how highly this people appreciate our Indian corn, when a demand for food exists, it is only necessary to refer to one of their orders made some years ago, and contained in the New Orleans Price Current: "*the condition imposed upon flour entering the Mexican ports is, that each barrel be accompanied by two barrels of Indian corn.*" Under this regulation, when corn was at one dollar per bushel and advancing, considerable quantities were taken from us.

The following table exhibits the whole receipts of corn at the port of New Orleans, from the 1st of September to the 16th of May, in the years 1845 and 1846.

1845.	1846.
964,446 bushels.	2,472,595 bushels.*

We append a table of our corn exports, compiled by us with great care, from the best sources within reach.

EXPORTS INDIAN CORN FROM NEW ORLEANS, COMMENCING SEPTEMBER 1, FOR THE YEARS 1842-3-4 AND 5, AND UP TO MAY 16, 1846.

	1842—3.	1843—4.	1844—5.	1845 to May 16, 1846.
Galveston	375	125	4,548	2,552
Matagorda	....	....	....	7,195
Sabine	....	....	....	200
Mobile	15,092	38,967	30,751	19,898
Pensacola	10,110	27,840	32,948	23,553
Apalachicola	1,000	6,543	2,962	1,998
Key West	1,150	1,021	4,926	....
Cedar Keys	....	....	750	....
Port Leon	750	....	100	1,800
Tampa Bay	520	....	1,834	2,388
St. Mary's	....	....	....	3,000
Savannah	18,688	1,500	6,542	96,318
Charleston, S. C.	50,086	7,333	9,126	192,537
Wilmington, N. C.	16,178	7,285	....	1,750
Newbern, N. C.	4,500	....	....	....
Norfolk, Va.	23,600	....	....	812
Richmond	....	....	....	1,812
Baltimore	....	....	....	5,500
Philadelphia	4,487	....	....	5,892
New York	315,442	87,449	64,566	225,273
Hartford, Ct.	4,000	....	....	....
Norwich	4,000	....	....	....
Newport, R. I.	4,500	....	4,357	9,000
Providence	99,576	6,300	23,078	41,500
Bristol	2,600	....	....	....
New Bedford	3,507	....	....	....
Boston	280,531	77,499	192,630	375,025
Bangor, Me.	4,000	....	....	....
Calais, Me.	6,000	....	....	....

* This amount appears large, and by many conceived too large; the same arrivals being computed in some cases both at this city and at Lafayette, in the zeal for full reports.

	1843—3.	1843—4.	1844—5.	1845 to May 16, 1846
Lubec, Me.	....	....	....	6,500
Portsmouth, N. H.	....	1,225	....	4,635
St. Kitts	2,750	....	....	....
Guadaloupe	530	533	1,641	....
Bermuda	....	1,973	2,625	6,580
Bahamas	....	7,150	....	....
Trinidad	....	625	2,625	2,330
Havana	125	20,398	38,681	125
Porto Rico	2,900	....	....	....
Martinique	....	....	3,262	....
Grand Caillou	375	....	....	....
Barracoa	....	....	....	500
West Indies	....	....	....	4,750
Brazos St. Jago	....	....	....	9,512
Aransas	....	....	3,550	1,806
Harbor Island	....	....	500	....
Metamoros	....	....	....	2,170
Halifax, N. S.	2,969	3,377	875	....
Shelburne	185	....	220	757
St. Johns, N. B.	4,918	2,125	3,327	250
St. Andrews, N. B.	3,175	....	....	....
Liverpool	....	....	7,835	151,447
London	....	....	....	19,655
Glasgow	....	....	....	2,500
Havre	72	....	....	....
Rotterdam	....	....	....	1,250
Bremen	....	....	....	183
Laguna	188,664	14,037	....	....
Honduras	92,195	4,925	560	....
Laguira	1,958	....	....	....
Sisal	37,616	39,673	....	....
Campeachy	49,390	20,075	....	....
Curaçoa	5,435	....	....	3,240
Kingston, Ja.	17,117	9,698	35,405	39,521
Falmouth	....	....	625	6,627
Port Antonio	....	....	5,800	....
Montego Bay	....	....	1,500	1,100
Jamaica	17,826	12,555	....	....
Barbadoes	4,097	9 015	4,233	5,105
Nassau, N. P.	950	8,433	....	3,407
Antigua	2,150	2,300	....	2,077
St. Thomas	750	770	....	1,500
Demerara	1,373	750	....	2,015
Total exports	1,308,067	421,525	492,528 ..	1,297,309

By this and the previous table, it appears that our exports have increased in a far greater ratio than our receipts, the present year, and but comparatively small foreign exports have been made, evidencing the superior attractions at home. The stock of *merchantable* corn, now in warehouse and on boats in New Orleans, is estimated at 250,000 bushels, and this is a most unusually heavy stock, accumulated by an unexampled scarcity of shipping. If we admit that future receipts, this season, will reach as high as 500,000 bushels, which would be comparatively *larger* than receipts in the same period of previous years, we have then 750,000 bushels, to meet every demand whatever upon us. The demand of the city of New Orleans alone, is computed at 75,000 bushels per month; which, as new corn cannot be expected in any quantity before November, will amount to upward of 400,000 bushels, leaving but 350,000 bushels for all shipments before December, as the new crop is never in safe shipping order before that

time, in the general understanding of the trade. Rather than purchase the new, shippers last season, as late as December, preferred the remnants of the old crop, though affected by the weavil.

But, admitting future receipts at New Orleans even to double the estimate we have made of them, an event which we have proved to be impossible, a glance at our table of exports showing in addition to a great city being supplied for so many months, numerous ports looking to us from every part of the country, and absolutely dependent upon us; a new and extensive market opening in Texas and Mexico; a West India demand thus far much neglected; how large a European demand can we be supposed capable of satisfying, even with this high estimate of receipts added to our present stocks? We are willing to rest the question here, satisfied of having maintained the position assumed at the commencement of this article. But in order to place the subject in the strongest point of view, we will, in conclusion, recapitulate and present at a single view our whole argument.

We encountered, at the opening of the discussion, estimates from two of the most influential publications in England and the United States, both agreeing upon a surplus of some twenty million bushels of corn, available for foreign export. This surplus, we have shown, was anticipated from a crop, admitted and proved only a good average one, upon the whole. The average export of the United States, for the last ten years, we saw to be only about 400,000 bushels. The question presented itself to us: if the average has been so small, did it proceed from an absence of foreign demand, or from the imperative requisition of the home market? In this question we waived altogether one of the terms, as unnecessary to the solution of the problem, and confined ourselves to the other. We asked if the home market could be considered, during the present year, ample enough to consume all the surplus of the country, and leave besides a considerable quantity, or any quantity at all, available for export? We took the position *that the market was large enough* in every respect, and that any liberality whatever in exports could only be the means of *restricting, in the event, the home consumer, and leave us at last without a sufficiency to supply our own demands* until the opening of another harvest. This position we fortified by the strongest possible arguments.' We showed that the season set in with all the old stock worked off and consumed, and that the demand of the year could be supplied only from the crop which it yielded, this demand at home being vastly greater than at any previous period of our history:

1. Because of the great amount of pork produced and fattened in the country, and particularly in the West.

2. Because of a hay crop everywhere greatly deficient.

3. Because of a winter severer and more protracted than for many years, and of a spring unusually late.

4. Because of increased emigration to most of the corn-growing States, and of this, that production has not increased with us at all proportionate with population.

5. Because of manufactures everywhere increasing in the country, and with them increased consumers.

We then took up the States of the Union *seriatim*, classing them

—first, as the corn *exporters;* and second, as the corn *importers*—and produced from the most approved statistics of these, most ample confirmation of our position. In the first class, consisting of twelve States, it was discovered,

1. That *New York*, with her great North-western tributaries, could furnish, in the reports of her public works, no surplus of Indian corn of any consequence passing over them, for many years past; and that when flour was attracted in large quantities to her seaboard by high prices in 1845, corn, at the same time, was attracted only in the most meagre quantities, though at much higher prices; showing the trivial capacities of the State as an exporter of that article.

2. That *Pennsylvania* has been a large sufferer from each of the causes, of deficient hay, severe winter, and late spring; that her rye crop has suffered considerable injury; and that her manufactures and distilleries have largely increased.

3. That *Delaware* has been favored with a crop rather above that of usual seasons.

4. That *Virginia* and *North Carolina*, as exhibited in the operations at Norfolk and Elizabeth city, show a short crop in the eastern part of the former, and a falling off at least of one-fourth in the capacities of the latter to export; the turpentine and naval stores industry being greatly on the advance in North Carolina, checking all further emigration from that State.

5. That *Ohio* had produced a crop, admitted on all sides to be short, and more particularly shown in the small amounts passing over her public works, canals, &c., while manufactories, distilleries, and pork producing and increasing population, are creating larger and larger demands for her produce at her door; and likely to leave her, in the result, to some extent, an importer.

6. That the surplus of *Missouri*, *Arkansas*, *Tennessee* and *Kentucky*, whatever it be, is almost entirely in market, and appears under the statistics of New Orleans.

7. That *Indiana* is in the same position as the States last named. Her crop was good, and compelled early into market, where it is almost entirely now, by the sudden and short rises on the Wabash and its tributaries, which take place in the earlier part of the season, and not after—evinced in the arrivals of flat-boats at New Orleans.

8. *Illinois* being supposed capable of furnishing us yet with shipments, if not stopped *in transitu*.

Having finished a view of the corn *exporters*, we turned to the second class, of corn importers, consisting of eight States, and saw,

1. That *Massachusetts*, at the head of them, through her metropolis, Boston, furnished the first and leading market of the States, influencing and giving character to corn operations in all parts of them, and for a series of years, making requisitions for supplies larger than the whole corn exports of New Orleans and Norfolk (the great corn marts) put together; and that in the present season, though the exports to Boston from New Orleans have reached 402,222 against 45,732 bushels only in the corresponding period of last year, yet up to date, the *total receipts* of the commodity have not increased, nor are stocks, despite of high prices, any larger there than usual, indicating large deficiencies of supplies from other places.

2. That *Providence, Rhode Island*, an important market, requiring usually three-fourths of a million bushels, has yet, in the first quarter of 1846, showed a greatly diminished receipt of corn, notwithstanding a large receipt of flour.

3. That *Portsmouth, New Hampshire*, for the first quarter of 1846, imported by one-fourth less than in the same period of 1845, notwithstanding the high prices there.

4. That the potato crop in *Maine* has been short, requiring excess of corn imports.

5. That large parts of *South Carolina* have been threatened almost with famine, the corn crop falling from thirteen millions in 1844 to eight millions in 1845, the imports of 1844 having reached the considerable amount, at Charleston alone, of upward of 300,000 bushels. The rice crop of the State has been greatly diminished this year, and up to date, New Orleans has sent to Charleston 192,537 bushels, against 9,126 bushels in the corresponding period of last year.

6. That *Georgia* has suffered, also, in a similar ratio, her product being little over half that of last year.

7. That the crops of *Alabama* show but 16,100,000 bushels of Indian corn, against 22,000,000 of the previous season.

8. That *New Orleans* alone, of all the receiving ports, shows increased receipts over last year; but, at the same time, shows more than a corresponding increased export.

And, finally, that notwithstanding the large exports from New Orleans, stocks have not increased in any of our cities, according to the best information we can obtain, fully evidenced in the fact that prices at all the Atlantic ports are augmenting, and are at this time from 70 to 100 per cent. higher than they are at New Orleans; and that our city consumption and our domestic ports will require the full extent of our present stock and future receipts.

Having dwelt so long and so minutely, that we might omit nothing and attain the greatest possible degree of accuracy, it is high time to return to the subject which set us in this direction, viz.: the importance to a country of extending and elaborating correct statistical details of its crops and its resources. Of the agriculturists, we would simply ask, in conclusion, if, with the influences which have been operating in Europe, and with the conviction there that a supply of ten or twenty million bushels corn awaited them from this country, certain prices have been afforded for their products, what other prices might they not reasonably have anticipated had it been known there what we have seen to be the fact, that but a few hundred thousand bushels, on the greatest estimate, will indeed be allowed for export. Minute quantities of a staple, either in excess of production or deficiencies, exercise upon the whole crop of that staple effects of which no one could conceive without much reflection. The theory of Gregory King will be remembered here, and the concluding reflection will be left to the producer of this article of grain, if these minute quantities of which we have spoken, exert so great effects, how much incomparably greater must be the effect of *quantities* thrown into calculation, so vast as the erroneous estimates of millions of bushels.*

* No one could be conversant for any time, as we have been, with the tables of grain in different countries, and been employed upon their comparison and contrast, without

Art. II.—BLOCKADE.

After thirty years of uninterrupted peaceful relations with the whole world, our country is now suddenly engaged in hostilities with a neighboring State. Already have questions occurred, growing out of this new state of things, with which the mercantile community are no longer familiar; already have vessels, fitted out in New Orleans, been turned away from Mexican ports, without being permitted to land their cargoes; and already have controversies arisen in relation to the effect produced by this interruption of their voyages in the respective rights, duties, and obligation of freighters, ship-owners, and insurers. We propose in the present article briefly to recapitulate a few of the leading principles of commercial and international law, which may form useful guides to the merchant in the formation and execution of his contracts; which may serve as land-marks to point out to him the risks which he incurs, and thus leave to him the option of affronting them at his own hazard, or of securing indemnity against them by insurance.

One of the first means of annoyance to an enemy, employed in modern warfare, is the blockade of his ports. Against Mexico this is perhaps the most effective measure, as it will unquestionably be one of the earliest that will be put into requisition by our government. The definition, nature, and operation, or effects of blockades will form the subject of the present article.

Blockade, by naval forces, bears an obvious analogy to a siege or circumvallation by armies on land. By the law of nations, an enemy has the same right to cut off communication by sea from a blockaded port, as to intercept intercourse with a besieged city from land. In both cases the object is the same, that of reducing the enemy into submission, by cutting off his supplies, or by the annoyance to his commerce, to force him to accept peace on just terms. It is now a well-settled principle, that a force sufficient for the purpose of maintaining an effective blockade, is essential to its validity; and that a nation has no more right to interdict to neutrals intercourse by sea

feeling to the full extent the enviable position enjoyed by the United States, in being always able to supply its own wants. On the continent of Europe, as well as in England, have great privations been endured. An article in a late number of the London Economist, of February 7th, puts the point in the clearest light. The accounts from Norway and Sweden inform us that a severe want exists in these countries. In many districts the prices of common food (rye and barley) are higher than they are in England. The general distress in the south of Europe for common food will most probably absorb all the spring corn and rye, and compel the Dutch and Belgians to buy some quantity of English barley for their wants for distilling purposes. We think it would be productive of serious consequences hereafter, if any large quantity of English barley should be drained from the country to supply the exigencies of our neighbors. At Memal and Stettin, rye and barley are of the same value as they are in England, duty paid. In Holland, the value of rye is almost as high as that of wheat; to which the London Chronicle adds: "What is the condition of the grain markets in all the surrounding countries to which we usually look for supplies? In Holland and Belgium the deficiency of food is even greater than here; in no part of Europe is there a surplus; in almost every part of Europe there is either threatened or absolute want; the price of barley on the continent, on the supply of which Sir Robert Peel appears to rely, to make up the deficient potato crop in Ireland, and to aid the government to save seed for next year, is so high that shipments of English barley have recently taken place to Holland." The substitution of Indian corn in the stead of barley for distilling purposes, as we see noticed in a London paper, common barley being now almost neglected, is a fact worthy of notice in this connection.

with ports not blockaded by efficient naval forces, than it would have the power to interdict land travel through the enemy's territory, by a simple declaration that its towns were in a state of siege. A history of the progressive steps by which this principle has been grafted on the law of nations, would be at once instructive and curious, but our limits forbid much detail on the subject. It will suffice for the present to remark, that the sovereign who lent the most efficacious aid to the recognition of this principle was the celebrated Catharine of Russia, who, in 1780, communicated to the courts of Madrid, London, and Versailles, a declaration of the principles on which the Russian Government intended to base its conduct, for the security of Russian commerce and navigation, among which principles was the following: "That to determine what is meant by a blockaded port, this denomination is only to be given to that where there is, by the arrangements of the power which attacks it with vessels stationed sufficiently near, an evident danger in attempting to enter it." This was the origin of the famous armed neutrality of 1780; this declaration of Russia was acceded to by France, Spain, Denmark, and Sweden in 1780, and by our own government, by ordinance of Congress, of April 7, 1781; in the same year it was also strengthened by the accession of Prussia and Austria, and in 1783, by that of the king of the Two Sicilies. Great Britain alone refused acquiescence for a number of years, but finally yielded in 1801, at which date, a maritime convention was signed between that power and Russia, containing an express recognition of the principle asserted by the latter government in 1780. A blockade has been defined by England's most distinguished Admiralty jurist, as "a sort of circumvallation by which all correspondence and communication is, as far as human force can effect it, to be entirely cut off."*

In order that neutral nations may be bound by a blockade, it is necessary that they should be notified of its existence. This notice may be given publicly by the power which establishes the blockade, to neutral governments, and in this case it will affect all the subjects of such neutral governments; or it may be given directly by the blockading force to vessels attempting to enter the port. Any attempt to violate a blockade, is punished by a confiscation of the vessel and cargo, if captured, but to constitute a violation of the blockade, the notice of it must be shown to have been given, either to the government of the offending vessel, as above mentioned, or directly to the vessel herself. In the blockade of Metamoros, recently established by General Taylor, the vessels of neutral nations attempted to enter the port. This was no violation of the blockade, because no notice had been given, and the vessels were therefore simply ordered off. If any of these vessels had, after notice of this blockade, again attempted to enter the interdicted port, their confiscation would have ensued, or at all events, such would now be the case, as the anomalous relations, recently existing between this government and Mexico have given place to open war.

It is usual, in time of war, for underwriters to require of neutrals a warranty that the property insured is neutral; any attempt, on the part of the insured to violate a blockade would be a breach of this

* Sir William Scott, in the case of the Vrow Judith. 1 Rob. Rep., 150.

warranty, and forfeit the insurance. And it is considered a violation of the blockade, not only to attempt to enter the blockaded port, but even to sail for one with the intention of entering it. In this latter case, the mere act of sailing constitutes a breach of the blockade, subjecting the offending party to rightful capture by any of the forces of the blockading power on any part of the high seas, while prosecuting such voyage.

Interesting questions frequently arise under contracts of charter party and affreightment, where the port of destination is blockaded, *after the contract is made.* In the case of the vessels recently ordered off by General Taylor, freight was claimed by the ship-owners from the charterers on the ground that the vessel had performed her voyage, and was prevented from landing the goods by a superior force, for which failure to deliver, it was pretended that the owners of the vessel ought not to be made responsible. This claim for freight was totally untenable. It is a well-settled principle of commercial law, that the contract of affreightment or charter party, is completely dissolved by the blockade of the port of destination or discharge, after the contract is made, and if the vessel return to the port of departure, the merchant must unlade his goods, and the ship-owners seek some other employment for their vessel. The reason of this is, that the voyage has become illegal, and neither party can attempt to carry out an agreement, which, however lawful when made, is subsequently prohibited, and the agreement itself, by operation of law, is dissolved and annulled, neither party being responsible to the other for its non-performance.

But although, in cases of this kind, neither the shipper of the goods nor owner of the vessel can lawfully claim the execution of the contract, either may, if insured, claim indemnity from the underwriters. If the freight for the voyage be insured, it is evident that the loss has occurred by reason of the "arrests, restraints, and detainments of kings, princes, and people," which risk is included in all our printed forms of policies. If the cargo be insured for the voyage, the blockade of the port of destination, after the making of the contract, breaks up the voyage, and entitles the insured to abandon to the underwriters, who have insured against the risk of "arrests, restraints," &c., to throw the adventure on their hands, and to recover the whole amount of his insurance. The right to abandon, however, has only been recognized in cases where the vessel was actually prevented by the blockading force from entering the port of destination, or leaving the port of departure; and it is still a matter which admits of doubt, whether the insured can make valid abandonment, in cases where there has been no actual application of "restraint" by the blockading force, and where the vessel, after receiving cargo, is compelled to decline prosecuting the voyage, by reason of notice of a blockade of the port of destination, being officially notified.

The above-stated principles of the law of insurance are, however, materially affected in New Orleans, by reason of certain clauses that have been inserted in the policies of most of our insurance companies, the effect of which is to leave to the merchant a very inadequate indemnity against the loss of his voyage by blockade. No prudent merchant, in time of war, should accept a policy on an adventure to

any of the ports of either belligerent, without satisfying himself that the terms of the policy are such as to protect him from loss by blockade. By reference to the printed forms of policy of the several insurance companies and agencies in this city, it will be found, that nearly all include the following condition, or one of similar import: "The insurers take no risk of blockade or embargo, but in case of a blockade of a port of destination, the vessel may proceed to another port not blockaded, and wait for the blockade to be raised, or there end the voyage. In such cases the cargo shall continue, at the risk of the insurers while waiting, for a reasonable time, not exceeding six months, at the end of which time this insurance shall cease." It is scarcely necessary here to remark, how completely illusory is the indemnity here offered, nine cases out of ten, when the port of destination may be found on the arrival of the vessel to be blockaded.

We shall close this article, by remaking, that of course nothing more than a very meagre outline of general principles has been attempted, or would have been suited to the pages of a commercial periodical; but what has been said will, we trust, suffice to attract the attention of the merchant to a subject, which, in the present posture of affairs, becomes one of grave interest to all who are engaged in foreign commerce.

Art. III.—THE CITY OF NASHVILLE—ITS HISTORY, POPULATION, RESOURCES, MANUFACTURES, &c.

In the years 1760–8, there hunted in the Cumberland valley individuals, principally of French and Spanish origin, who made the French Lick, now within the limits of Nashville, one of their principal stations. In 1769, Capt. John Rains and Colonel Boone penetrated the valley, descending as low as the mouth of Stone's river, 12 miles above Nashville. They describe the country as being then covered with grass; no traces of human settlements, either civilized or savage, being anywhere visible. In 1770, Jasper Mansco and eleven others encamped at the bluff, near the French Lick, and remained there hunting during the summer. Upon their arrival, "they saw an immense number of buffalo, and other wild game, and the bellowings of the buffalo resounded from hill and forest."

At this time, Vincennes, Kaskaskia, Boone's Station, Natchez, and Pensacola, were the nearest points, west of the Cumberland and Alleghany mountains, to which the adventurous spirits of the white race had reached. The greater part of Tennessee, Kentucky, Alabama, Mississippi, and Upper Georgia, was still in the possession of the Shawnees, Creeks, and other Indian tribes.

In 1779, Captain James Robertson and a small number of hunters, from North Carolina, came to the French Lick, encamped for the season, made a small crop of corn, and subsisted upon the game with which the forest abounded.

In the month of January, 1780, Capt. John Rains with two hundred emigrants, crossed the Cumberland on the ice, below the bluffs. John Buchanan arrived at the same time with about an equal number

from South Carolina, and on the 24th of April, of the same year, Captain Robertson having descended the Tennessee river, with a large party of emigrants from East Tennessee, arrived at the mouth of the Lick Branch. Having reached the bluff, these parties were found to number about five hundred strong. Here they constructed a fort, and small parties settled in the neighborhood, establishing stockades for protection at intervals through the country. They were almost immediately engaged in a war with the Creeks and Cherokees, who continued to harrass them with their small marauding parties until 1792. Often, during these times, the pioneers of the bluff were driven to the shelter of the fort, cut off from succor; in danger of starvation, and threatened with the tomahawk. During three years of their settlement, from 1780 to 1784, more than a hundred of the original settlers had fallen by the hands of the Creeks and Cherokees.

The Indians made their last serious attack on the settlements in the Cumberland valley, in 1792. On the night of the 30th of September, of that year, about one thousand Creek and Cherokee warriors attacked Buchanan's station, three miles east of the bluff. The block house contained only nine persons, who repelled the Indians with great loss.

In April, 1794, the General Assembly of Tennessee passed an act to establish the town of Nashville, which contains the following section:

"*Be it enacted, &c.*—That two hundred acres of land, situated on the south side of Cumberland river, at a place called the *Bluff*, adjacent to the *French Lick* (in which said Lick shall not be included), shall be laid off, &c., reserving four acres for public buildings, to be called and known by the name of Nashville, in memory of the brave and patriotic General Nash.

In 1806, the town was regularly incorporated, by the name and style of "The Mayor and Aldermen of Nashville," with power to make all necessary municipal regulations.

At one time the Mayor had criminal jurisdiction of all offences committed within the limits of the corporation; but that is now taken away, and the corporation has power only to enforce its own ordinances.

The city is divided into six wards, each of which elects two aldermen. The elections are annual.

We are indebted to the politeness of Captain Alpha Kingsley for the following summary of the population, trade, &c., of Nashville, as ascertained by him in December last, while taking the census of the city, under the authority of the corporation.

CENSUS OF NASHVILLE, JANUARY, 1846.

Males	4,664	
Females	3,593	
Males (slaves)	..	1,960
Females "	..	1,932
Males (free blacks)	..	262
Females "	..	292
	8,257	4 436
	4,436	
Total	12,693	

Whole population in 1830	5,566
" " 1840	6,929
" " 1845	12,693

OCCUPATIONS.

18 clergymen, 51 lawyers, 36 physicians, 57 teachers, 6 artists, 210 merchants, 282 clerks, 40 printers, 9 book-binders, 4 architects, 247 carpenters, 41 cabinet-makers, 27 coach-makers, 9 wagon-makers, 1 machine-maker, 15 watch and clock makers, 8 silver and whitesmiths, 13 blacksmiths, 9 coppersmiths, 3 gun-smiths, 4 brass-founders, 21 tin and sheet-iron workers, 5 cap and hat makers, 42 saddle and harness makers, 39 boot and shoemakers, 33 tailors, 27 brick-masons, 17 stone-masons, 8 stone-cutters, 5 coopers, 23 painters and paper-hangers, 6 tavern-keepers, 7 shop-keepers, 5 bakers, 19 butchers, 48 tavern-keepers, 17 keepers of stables, 20 fishermen, 7 lime-makers, 4 chair-makers, 21 barbers (colored, except 1), 16 traders, 32 brick-makers, 4 iron-founders, 2 upholsterers, 16 house-plasterers, 400 river men on steam and keel boats.

RECAPITULATION.

	1840.	1845.
Professional men and teachers	120	164
In mercantile pursuits	227	508
Mechanics and undertakers	577	722
In navigation	360	400

WHITE SCHOLASTIC POPULATION OF THE CITY, FROM 5 TO 15.

Males	884
Females	1,020
	1,904
At colleges and schools	1,091
Not at school	813

CHURCHES.

	Churches.	Estimated Members.
Presbyterian (O. S.)	2	500
" (Cumberland)	1	50
Baptist (Missionary)	2	400
Christian (Campbellites)	1	300
Episcopal	1	200
Methodist Episcopal	1	400
" " (College Hill)	1	100
" " (African)	1	200
Roman Catholic	1	100

SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

University	1
Professors and assistants	7
Pupils	93
Academies and grammar schools	10
Teachers	32
Scholars	478
Common schools	17
Scholars	520
Teachers	18

TRADE OF NASHVILLE.

Exports of cotton, tobacco, pork, beef, live stock, wax, feathers, ginseng, &c.	$4,000,000
Imports of dry goods (estimated at)	2,500,000
" of groceries	1,500,000
Other imports	500,000

TAXABLE PROPERTY.

913 Town lots	$2,718,591
5,156 Slaves	2,735,164
170 Pleasure carriages	50,000
Money at interest	290,000
Jewelry	64,000
	$5,857,685

PORK ESTABLISHMENTS.

There is but one *packing* establishment in the city. It belongs to Hall & Co., formerly of Cincinnati, and slaughtered during the past season 23,175 hogs, raised in Davidson and the surrounding counties in Middle Tennessee, averaging 202 lbs. net in weight, including 37 lbs. of lard. The establishment will slaughter in the next season 500 hogs per day.

FLOUR MILL AND STEAM DISTILLERY.

The only establishment of the kind in Nashville, is that of L'Hommedieu & Co., which employs about 40 hands; using per day of corn, 600 bushels, of wheat, 150 bushels, and of rye, 20 bushels; turning out thirty barrels of flour, and fifty of whiskey in the same time.

COAL.

About 1,600 tons of stone coal are used in Nashville, which is brought from mines 200 miles above, on the Cumberland, and from Bell's mines, on the Ohio, at the mouth of Trade Water, valued at 15 a 25 cents per bushel.

EDIFICES.

The churches, stores and dwellings are generally of brick. The State capitol, now in construction, will be composed entirely of stone, and will cost three or four hundred thousand dollars. The Lunatic Asylum (a State institution) is a beautiful structure, composed entirely of stone. In addition to the other public buildings, there is the Masonic Hall, and the Odd Fellows, having lately purchased the theatre, are about to rebuild it, for the benefit of their lodge.

LIBRARIES.

The State Library contains about five thousand volumes, principally Congressional and Legislative Journals, Reports, &c. The State has never appropriated anything for the establishment of a library. The University has about four thousand volumes, and each of its literary societies as many more. The Mechanics' Library, formed by the voluntary contributions of mechanics and others, is yet small, but from the energy displayed in its organization, it promises to become the most important library in the city. It already contains about four thousand volumes. Several gentlemen in the city have excellent private libraries. Bishop Miles (Catholic) is said to have a rare collection of old ecclesiastical works.

The location of Nashville is remarkable for its regular and rapid increase in business and population. It is the centre of a rich and populous region, containing 500,000 inhabitants.

Until within the last seven or eight years, the business of the city was much retarded by the bad roads from the neighboring counties.

which prevented the principal articles of its exports from being brought into market until late in the season. But in the last-named period, excellent McAdamized roads were laid out, leading from all the neighboring counties, thereby enabling the planters and farmers to bring their produce to market at all seasons of the year.

The river is navigable for the smallest class of steamers from Nashville to the mouth of the Cumberland throughout the year. It is also navigable several hundred miles above. During seven or eight months it is navigable for boats of from three hundred to five hundred tons burthen.

A laudable spirit of enterprise has been directed to projects for the improvement of the river by locks and dams; and also to the connection of Nashville, by railroad, with the Carolina and Georgia railroads, at Chattanooga. Should these improvements be made, it will not be many years before Nashville will become one of the first cities of the West.

Nashville is situated in latitude 36 deg. 9 m.; longitude, west from London, 86 deg. 49 m.; from Washington, 9 deg. 48 m. Elevation above the level of the ocean, by barometer, 460 feet.

Art. IV.—CORPORATIONS.

The new Constitution of Louisiana has given the *coup de grace* to private corporations within her domain. It is therein ordained, that no corporate body shall hereafter be created, renewed, or extended, with banking or discounting privileges. Corporations shall not be created in the State by special laws, except for political or municipal purposes, but the legislature shall provide, by general laws, for the organization of all other corporations, except corporations with banking or discounting privileges, the creation of which is prohibited. From and after the month of January, 1890, the legislature shall have the power to revoke the charters of all corporations whose charters shall not have expired previous to that time, and no corporation hereafter to be created, shall ever endure for a longer period than twenty-five years, except those which are political or municipal. The General Assembly can never grant any exclusive privilege or monopoly for a longer period than twenty years. This is the substance of the provisions of the new Constitution on that head.

A non-resident would imagine, and justly too, that these "mystical bodies," as Ayliff calls them, were peculiarly obnoxious to the good people of Louisiana, and, therefore, that they have laid their axe to the root of the tree. It is the mischief of this age to rush into extremes. Ancient landmarks are destroyed with heedlessness and without compunction:

> "Too sudden, rash, and unadvised;
> Too like the lightning that hath ceased to be
> Ere we can say it lightens."

Law-making seems to be the characteristic of the age, and runs

an almost equal race with law-breaking. The *carmen necessarium* of the Roman youth has, even under the glorious light of our codified laws, borrowed as it has been from the city of seven hills, given place to a mass of undigested legislation, which the labors of Trebonius himself could hardly reduce to consistency. Neither can we always subscribe to the doctrine, that the last law is the best law (*jus posterius derogat priori*). However, this is not the subject before us, and we return.

The Louisiana Code defines a corporation to be an intellectual body, created by law, composed of individuals united under a common name, the members of which succeed each other, so that the body continues always the same, notwithstanding the changes of the individuals which composed it, and which, for certain purposes, is considered as a natural person.*

The great object of an incorporation is to bestow the character and properties of individuality on a collateral and changing body of men.† Corporations had their rise as early as Rome herself, and were supposed to have emanated from Solon, the Grecian law-giver. The Romans were jealous of these combinations, and they restrained those that were not specially authorized; and every corporation was illicit that was not ordained by the decree of the Senate, or of the Emperor. Augustus followed the example of Julius Cæsar, and dissolved all corporations except those of an ancient and legal character. A singular instance of the extreme jealousy indulged by the Roman government against them, is mentioned by Pliny the younger.

A destructive fire in Nicomedia induced Pliny to recommend to the Emperor Trajan the institution, for that city, of a fire company of one hundred and fifty men (*Collegium fabrorum*), with an assurance that none but those of that business should be admitted into it, and that the privileges granted them should be extended to no other purpose. But the emperor refused the grant, and observed, that societies of that sort had greatly disturbed the peace of the cities; and that whatever name he gave them, and for whatever purpose they might be instituted, they would not fail to be mischievous.

Blackstone contends that the honor of originally inventing political corporations entirely belongs to the Romans. He cites Plutarch, who says they were introduced by Numa, who finding on his accession, the city torn to pieces by the two rival factions of Sabines and Romans, thought it a prudent and politic measure to subdivide these two into many smaller ones, by instituting separate societies of every manual trade and profession. The powers, capacities, and incapacities of corporations under the English law, very much resemble those under the Roman law; and it is evident, says Kent, that the principles of law applicable to corporations under the former were borrowed chiefly from the civil law, and from the policy of the municipal corporations established in Britain and the other Roman colonies, after they had been conquered by the Roman arms. Corporations, or colleges, for the advancement of learning, were entirely unknown to the ancients, and they are the fruits of modern invention. But it seems from Blackstone, that these *universities*, or many individuals

* Civil Code, Art. 418. † 14 Peters' S. C. Rep. 514.

in one body, were also adopted into the canon-law, and thence is derived the English spiritual corporations.* The transition to colleges of learning was easy. This kind of *collegia*, or gathering together, appeared near the close of the third century. But it was not until the light of the thirteenth century shone upon the world, that universities began to confer degrees, and obtain a portion of the authority, influence and solidity which they enjoy at the present time. The earlier periods of modern Europe witnessed the institution of civil corporations for political and commercial purposes. Cities, towns and fraternities were invested with corporate powers and privileges. They afforded protection to commerce and the mechanic arts, and formed a barrier against the great powers and rapacious conduct of the feudal barons. Thus order, security, industry, trade and the arts, revived in Italy, France, Spain, Germany, Flanders and England.

Having now given a rapid historical sketch of corporations, we shall proceed to our more immediate purpose of showing an outline of our own statutes on the subject. Their *use* is said to be a contribution by the union and assistance of several persons, to the promotion of some object of general utility, although they may be at the same time established for the advantage of those who are members of such corporations. They are either political or private: the first, having principally for their object the administration of a portion of the State—all others are private corporations. These latter are again divided into civil and religious. Civil corporations are those which relate to temporal police; such as the corporations of cities, companies for the advancement of commerce and agriculture, literary societies, colleges or universities founded for the instruction of youth, and the like. Religious corporations are such as the congregations of the different religious persuasions.

Our new corporations must not only be authorized by the legislature, but a name must be given to them, and it is by this name they must be sued and sue, and do all their legal acts. Legally established, they are substituted for persons. Hence it follows, that they possess an estate, and have a common treasury; that they are capable of receiving legacies and donations; that they make valid contracts, obligate others and themselves; exercise the rights which belong to them; manage their own affairs; appear in courts of justice, and even enact statutes and regulations for their own government, provided they are not contrary to the laws of the *political* society of which they are members. The right of succession is also inherent to their nature, and the right of electing new members in the place of old, is always an implied one. They are intellectual beings, and consequently distinct from the persons who compose them. The estate and rights of a corporation belong so completely to the body, that none of the individuals who compose it can dispose of any part of them. This is the material difference between a corporation and a partnership.† According to this rule, what is due to a corporation is not due to any of the individuals who compose it, and *vice versa*. A creditor cannot, accordingly, proceed except against the body and not one of its members, except where they so express it in the deed,

* Blackstone, Vol. 1, Cap. xviii. † Angel & Ames, p. 23.

either for his individual portion or for the whole.* A corporation being an intellectual being, it must delegate to a particular individual, such as a mayor, president, syndics, directors or others, the transaction of its business. Such having their duties pointed out to them, bind the corporations to which they belong in such things as do not exceed the limits of the administration which is entrusted to them; their act is supposed to be the act of the corporation. If the powers of such officers have not been expressly determined, they are regulated in the same manner as those of other agents. A corporation cannot be administrator, guardian or testamentary executor, nor fulfil any other office of personal trust: neither can it be imprisoned, says our code, for its existence being ideal, no body can arrest or confine it. Nor can it bring an action for assault and battery (facetiously perhaps, says the same authority), for a corporation can neither beat nor be beaten in its corporated capacity. Neither can it commit the crime of treason (a graver consideration), or any other crime or offence in its corporated capacity. The act of the majority in corporations is considered the act of the whole, and the statutes and regulations which they enact for their police and regulation, are all obligatory upon their respective members, provided they are not contrary to the laws, to public liberty, or to the interest of others.

A corporation may be dissolved—1. By an act of the Legislature, if they deem it necessary or convenient for the public interest, providing it cannot be repealed without making reimbursement of the advances made, or making full indemnity to individuals who have advanced money or engaged property therein. 2. By the forfeiture of its charter, when the corporation abuse their privileges, or refuse to accomplish the conditions on which such privileges were granted.

We have thus given a brief, but we believe a correct, review of the nature, history, use and kinds of corporations, with especial reference to the laws which govern them in Louisiana.

Art. V.—THE STATE OF INDIANA.

THE Territorial Government of Indiana was formed in 1800; in 1805, the Territorial Legislature was organized; and in 1816, the State was admitted into the Union, and the present State Constitution formed, by a Convention assembled at Corydon, for that purpose.

Population in 1800, 4,651; in 1810, 24,520; in 1820, 147,178; in 1830, 341,582; in 1840, 684,868; in 1845, about 766,034.

The earliest settlement in the State was made at Vincennes, by a French colony, who called the place Port Vincent. The principal towns now in the State are New Albany, Madison, Vincennes, Terre Haute, Lafayette.

The State of Indiana exhibits in the extent and fertility of its ter-

* Stockholders are only liable in proportion to their quantum of stock, and not in solido (17 L. R. 397). Every one who does enter into a common purpose, or design, is generally deemed, in law, a party to every act which had before been done by the others, and a party to every act which may afterward be done by any of the others, in furtherance of such common design.—*Greenleaf on Evid.*, 2d ed.

ritory, as well as by the facilities of transportation by which it is almost surrounded, extraordinary agricultural and commercial advantages. There is embraced in the State a territorial domain of about thirty-seven thousand square miles—in which is presented a soil of unusual fertility, and from more than half the counties that compose the State, the produce of the agriculturist may be transported from his farm by steam or flat-boats.

The southern portion of the State is generally of a broken and uneven surface. A range of hills runs nearly parallel with the Ohio river, through the greater part of the State, alternately approaching and receding from the river, leaving frequently immense tracts of bottom-land of a rich alluvial soil. The south-western portion is exceedingly broken and hilly, abounding in abrupt rocky and precipitous cliffs. As we advance toward the interior, the hills disappear, and the surface assumes a more level and unbroken appearance, the soil partakes considerably of a clay nature, but is productive of the ordinary crops. As we approach nearer the centre of the State, we find a still more level region. The White-water valley is considered unsurpassed in the fertility and productiveness of its soil. Approaching north, the country is considerably rolling; a number of counties are, however, of a low and wet soil, composed of too much clay, which renders it cold and uncertain in its crops.

The north-western portion of the State consists of several species of soil, and is characterized by a marked difference of scenery. A part is heavily timbered, consisting principally of walnut, maple, beach, buckeye, &c. A considerable part of this country is what is denominated "prairie." The soil composing this species of land is a deep vegetable mould, of exhaustless fertility; this soil is perhaps the most productive of any found in this part of the State, yielding very plentiful crops of the grain usually raised in the Western States; corn, however, is the more abundant and favorite crop. Many of these prairies are exceedingly beautiful; the surface extends as far as the vision reaches, in sweeping undulations, interspersed with numerous groves, and delightfully variegated with rivers and small streams. In the spring and summer they are covered by a varied and luxuriant growth of herbage and fragrant wild flowers, of every tint and hue, which gives them an appearance of beauty beyond description.

There is a species of land, differing from any yet mentioned, called "barrens," comprising a rolling country, with a dry, sandy, gravelly soil, with large trees growing from ten to fifty feet apart, then densely covered with an undergrowth of stunted oak, bushes, hazel, and other shrubbery. The soil is better adapted to the culture of wheat than any other species of soil in the State; it is both surer and more abundant in crops.

The north-eastern portion of the State consists of heavily timbered lands, interspersed with occasional small prairies and barrens. Some parts are low and marshy, too wet for cultivation, but could be reclaimed without great labor or expense, and be rendered arable, and susceptible of the highest improvement.

There are numerous small lakes in the northern part of the State,

the water of which is deep, clear, and exceedingly transparent, abounding with fish of different kinds.

The mineral resources of Indiana are but partially developed; coal is found in different parts of the State in great abundance. There are also great quantities of iron-ore. In 1840 there were about 57,700 dollars invested in the manufacture of iron.

There are numerous Salt springs of a superior quality. In 1840 there were about 6,400 bushels of salt manufactured in the State.

The agricultural interests of the State are rapidly advancing. There have been of late years agricultural societies formed in the different counties of the State, by which, with the laudable efforts of many enterprising individuals, a more efficient and systematic mode of farming will be introduced.

No better idea can be given of the agricultural resources, than by exhibiting a table of the annual products of 1844.

There were raised

Wheat	5,419,000	bushels.
Corn	24,509,000	"
Oats	11,587,000	"
Potatoes	3,573,000	"

Also, 3,200,000 pounds of tobacco; 2,027,000 tons of hay; 500 tons of flax and hemp; 7,365,000 pounds of sugar. The productiveness and opulence of the State will better appear by knowing the comparative standing with other States. In wheat and oats, Indiana is the sixth in the Union; in corn, the fifth; in potatoes, the ninth; in hay, the third; in flax and hemp, the fourth; in tobacco, the sixth; in sugar, the third. The increasing facilities for transportation of produce, in addition to the advantages already mentioned, operate as a great incentive and stimulus to the agricultural interest. The Wabash and Erie canal, the Madison and Indianapolis railroad (a company has been incorporated this winter to extend it to intersect the Wabash and Erie canal), with the Central canal, make an almost perfect internal communication, and must tend to realize in various ways the great commercial and agricultural prosperity that position and soil would indicate, and ultimately develop her yet hidden resources.

The whole amount of foreign debt is as follows:

Bonds, on which the State has to pay interest	$11,090,000	
" " the bank pays interest	1,390,000	
Interest due January 1, 1846	2,777,390	$15,257,390

The whole amount of the domestic debt is as follows:

Six per cent. treasury notes outstanding	$491,435	
Interest now due on six per cent. treasury notes (estimated)	147,000	
Five per cent. treasury notes outstanding	441,325	
Interest now due on five per cent. treasury notes (estimated)	69,000	
Loan from the bank, under act of January 15, 1844	56,000	1,204,760
Total amount of State debt		$16,462,060

The value of the taxable property in the State is estimated at $118,537,965: by which it will be seen that the faith of the State stands pledged for the ultimate payment of a debt nearly equal to one-seventh of the value of all its taxables.

The amount of interest to be paid, annually, on the foregoing debt, is as follows:

Interest on bonds, as above stated.....	$556,220	
Interest on six per cent. treasury notes.....	29,486	
Interest on five per cent. treasury notes	22,066	$607,772

It will be seen by this table, that the annual interest accruing upon the State debt (without including the interest falling due on the bank bonds) is equal to one-half of one per centum of the value of all its taxable property.

Art. VI.—PRIVATEERING.

ACCORDING to the modern law of nations, privateering cannot be carried on without authority from the nation. Privateers sailing without a national commission, are liable to be captured by the public armed vessels of all nations—and their crews to be treated as pirates. This was admitted, frequently and constantly, in the court of the United States in Louisiana, in trials during the war arising between France and Spain, after the invasion of the latter by Bonaparte. This was a great amelioration of the practice in ancient times, and one yet in existence among savage nations, which authorized the citizens of one State to prey on those of another, when at war, at their option.

The Romans introduced the improvement, by considering it requisite that no one but an enrolled soldier, under the command of a commissioned officer, could commit hostilities—and none other was authorized to kill a Roman enemy. Hence the citizens of one State cannot, according to the laws of nations, commit hostilities on those of another, except when called upon by the sovereign to take up arms.

Attempts have been made, in modern times, to abolish privateering, from a consideration of the abuses to which it is liable. In the treaty between Russia and the United States in 1785—article 20—it was stipulated: that in case of war between the parties, "neither of the contracting parties shall grant or issue any commission to any private armed vessels" to interrupt their respective commerce; and this was "to be as sacredly observed as the most acknowledged articles in the law of nature or nations"—article 24. France also, in 1792, passed a decree for the total suppression of privateering. But the efforts made, in this behalf, have been feeble and unavailing.

During the late war with England, American privateers were extremely active against the commerce of the enemy, and a vast amount of property was captured by the numerous vessels which engaged those of our adversary.

In the war between the Netherlands and Spain, no other armed vessels were employed, by the former against the latter, *than* privateers—and by these great damage was done to the Spaniards.

The State of New York, during the last war, passed an act to encourage privateering associations, by authorizing any five or more

persons who should be desirous to form a company for the purpose of annoying the enemy and their commerce, by means of private armed vessels, to sign and file a certificate, stating the name of the company and its stock, &c., and that they and their successors should thereupon be a body politic and corporate, with the ordinary corporate powers.*

But though privateering has not been suppressed, great efforts have been made to prevent its abuses.

Privateers must act in strict conformity with their commissions;—if they exceed them and capture the property of a friend, or neutral power, the crew is liable to be prosecuted as pirates.

By the laws of most of the nations of Europe, the owners of privateers are required to give bond and security, in amount from $8,000 to $12,000, to comply with the regulations concerning their cruising, and to prevent them from committing illegal acts.

By the act of Congress of the United States—9th July, 1798, § 4—privateers gave security in $14,000, if the vessel carried more than one hundred and fifty men, and in half that sum if she carried less. The owners, however, are not considered as liable beyond the amount of the bonds.

The President of the United States gave very particular instructions, during the last war, to private armed vessels, touching the manner of cruising, the respect due to neutrals, and the capturing enemies' vessels. They are to be found in 2 Wheaton's Rep., Appendix, page 80.

By the laws of most nations, their citizens are forbid from entering the private armed vessels of another, to cruise against a nation in amity.

By the law of Plymouth Colony, in 1682, it was declared to be felony to commit hostilities on the high seas, under the flag of any foreign power, upon the subjects of another foreign power in amity with England. The same acts were declared to be felony, by a law of the colony of New York, in 1699.

By the Marine Ordinance of France, of August, 1681—Liv. 3: Tit. 9: Art. 3—French citizens were prohibited from entering on board of foreign private armed vessels, without permission of the king, under the penalty of being treated as pirates.

A cruiser, furnished with commissions from two different powers, is liable to be treated as a pirate. The captains and officers of such cruisers are punishable as pirates by the above-mentioned ordinance. —Lib. 3: Tit. 9: Art. 5.

In the various treaties between the powers of Europe in the two last centuries, and in the several treaties between the United States and France, Holland, Sweden, Prussia, Great Britain, Spain, Columbia, Chili, &c., it is declared: that no subject or citizen of either nation shall accept a commission or letter of marque to assist any enemy in hostilities against the other, *under pain of being treated as a pirate.*

Should war continue with Mexico there is not much to be apprehended from her privateers, with the provisions of these treaties.

The law of nations, as well as treaties, would authorize the pun-

* Laws of New York (21st October, 1814), 38 Sess. C. 12.

ishment of others than Mexican citizens, as pirates, when engaged against us in privateering.

In order to divest the title in captured vessels and their cargoes, when captured by privateers, it is necessary to bring them into port and condemn them by a judicial tribunal of the captors—and a record must be made of the condemnation—without such papers the title of the original owners is not changed. This is the received law of Europe—and a part of the law of nations. The court of an ally cannot make such condemnation.

When private armed vessels, *without a commission to cruise*, capture the vessels of enemies, the act is legal; but the condemnation of the property enures to the benefit of the Sovereign.*

Art. VII.—ANALYTICAL INDEX OF THE PUBLIC DOCUMENTS RELATIVE TO LOUISIANA, DEPOSITED IN THE ARCHIVES OF THE DEPARTMENT "DE LA MARINE ET DES COLONIES ET PARIS"—Continued.

We have already given a full analysis of these papers, except what are to be found in the 5th and 6th Portfolios. In reference to these, want of space will compel us to rest content with an abstract of their most important and interesting contents. We may return to the subject hereafter:

1794. Paris. Letter from the American citizen Mountflorence to the "Comité de Salut Public," handing extracts from a Boston paper, announcing that there was a revolution preparing in Louisiana to shake off the Spanish yoke and to follow the impulsion given by North America.

1788. Document whereby it would appear that M. deVillars, commissioner of Louisiana for the King, had addressed him to the fol-

* Privateering constitutes a separate chapter in the laws of nations. Every nation has resorted to this method of destroying the commerce of the enemy, without questioning for a moment their right of doing so. Many have affected to consider it, after all, but legalized piracy, and calculated to blunt the finer feelings of justice and sear the heart to all noble sentiments. We are at a loss ourselves to understand how the occupation of a mere privateer can be reconciled with any of the higher feelings of our nature, an occupation whose whole end and purpose is pillage upon the high seas and pecuniary gain out of the fiercest bloodshed. The love of country, patriotic self-devotion and ardor, have no place in such concerns; and it is common enough to find foreigners under the flag of a belligerent power, preying upon the commerce of nations with whom their own is at peace. Cases such as these, it was said, would be treated as piracy, by the present administration at Washington, in the case of hostilities breaking out with Mexico; but though such a course would be consonant with the principles of humanity, it would not be sanctioned, we think, by the rules of nations as now understood. It cannot be doubted, that men estimable in other respects, have been found in the pursuit of privateering; but exceptions of this kind are rare, and could not, we think, occur again, in the improved moral sense of mankind. Like the good Sir Matthew Hale sitting in condemnation of witchcraft, and sentencing those guilty of it to the flames, their excuse can only be found in the peculiar circumstances of their times. Privateering was introduced into England about the time of Elizabeth, and caused great destruction to the fleets of the Spanish nation, with whom she was at war. Sir Francis Drake's privateering would in our times be counted piracy. The transition from the privateer to the pirate is but a step. In the early history of South Carolina, its coasts were infested by this last class of men, who were beaten and captured by Rhett. History tells us that these desperadoes commenced their career as privateers, and that, grown wanton from success, they could not find it in their heart again to return to private and honest life on the return of peace. We know not how many other such examples there are.—Editor Com. Rev.

lowing effect under date of 27th March, 1768. "That General Wilkinson, one of the largest proprietors in the new State of Kentucky, had come down to Louisiana, giving to understand to the administrators of the colony, that the adjoining United States had come to the determination of forcing a passage through the Mississippi, the navigation of which to remain hereafter open to both countries, but that he had obtained of them to suspend their movements until his return."

On the other hand, Messrs. Vincent and Marbois observe that the people are in great error, if they think that Congress can entertain such ideas, that the population of the western country can only increase at the expense of the thirteen Eastern States, these States possessing really only a border country of about one hundred leagues on the ocean.

1750. Discovery in Louisiana of a flint mine (crystal); the place made a secret.

1768. Letter of Governor Aubry, giving an account of his government jointly with Governor Ulloa, who for want of troops cannot take possession of the country.

Letter from Governor Aubry to the government respecting the Louisiana rebellion; he states that he cannot express himself freely; that he can trust no one, not even his secretary, lest he should be treated in the same manner as Ulloa.

1734. Plan of a large portion of the city of New Orleans (signed Brautin), including Toulouse, St. Peter, St. Anne, Dumaine, Levee and Condé streets. On this plan are indicated the following buildings to be undertaken during 1734, to wit: Barracks, fronting the river between St. Anne and Dumaine; Government house fronting the Levee, between St. Peter and Toulouse; Custom house (Intendance), also fronting the Levee between Dumaine and St. Anne.

1731. Ursuline Convent, founded in 1727; memorial of Father d'Avangeon on the advantages of that institution; the object is represented to have been the education of young girls, the nursing of the sick as "hospitalières; the service of the military hospital; prays for aid in order to increase the number of sisters originally 6 to 12, and the confirmation in "franc alleu" of the lands granted in New Orleans, and that they be permitted to enjoy the privileges belonging to their order in France.

1764. Instructions to M. d'Abbadie respecting the Jesuits, which instructions are stated to have been carried into effect, the company having been dissolved, and their estates having been sold previous to the receipt of the letters patent of the king bearing date the 3d June, 1763.

1741. M. de Bienville, interesting account relative to the Indians.

1741. Report of M. Duvergé, concerning different operations entrusted to him for the improvement of the colony; presents a plan for an establishment at Ship Island, at Alibamons, and on the Wabash; also, but on a smaller scale, at Biloxi and in Illinois; recommends the clearing of the Manchac of trees impeding the navigation of that rivulet; proposes a road from Biloxi to Illinois by land; submits a plan for the raising of silk-worms; speaks of a military post

on the St. Bernard, &c., &c. This report embraces a complete organization for the government of Louisiana, and is highly interesting, presenting large views on the commerce and agriculture of the country, and was approved by the directors of the West India Company Paris on the 15th September, 1720.

1733. M. de Bienville, relative to the Indians; interesting details respecting the Natchez, the Chicachas, &c.; original letters from persons inhabiting among those nations and the Illinois, the Alibamons, the Natchitoches, the Talapenches, the Chitimachas, the Atakapas, and the Loupelousas.

1734. M. de Bienville on the Chicachas, Natchez, and Chactas; interesting details; a few speeches by the Indian chiefs.

1734. M. de Bienville on the Indians.

1733. The same on the same subject.

1716. Memorial on the importance of colonizing Louisiana; an armed colonization is recommended, instead of soldiers, as being less costly, and more useful.

1750. Extract of a letter from Mr. Durand to the Marquis of Puyzenet, dated London, speaking of the Quakers and of the Moravians in the highest terms; recommends them for the colonization of Louisiana, and adds, "It appears that Admiral Anson was intrusted with a project, which not having received its execution cannot now be fully ascertained. A plan found in the papers of King William the 3d, shows however, that that prince had conceived the idea of taking possession of the Isthmus of Darien, and by the means of the river running nearly through from one sea to the other, to open communications between the fleets in the Atlantic and South Seas, granting, at the same time, commissions to all privateers, for the purpose of annoying the French and Spanish commerce, and of gradually keeping the latter power in the dependence of England."

1740, 28th June. Memorial of M. Duvergé relating to the discovery of the road from New Orleans to the upper country, through the Chicachas; the whole is very interesting, and contains about one hundred pages.

1723. Interesting documents, containing the speeches of several of the leading Indian warriors, asking the pardon of a soldier condemned to death.

1719. Histories of a journey in the interior of Louisiana, by Bernard de la Harpe, containing a memorial for assistance.

1766. Letter from Mr. Aubry explaining the reasons which have induced Governor Ulloa to delay taking possession of Louisiana.

1767. Letter from the Duke of Choisseul to Mr. Aubry approving the continuation of his government for the king of Spain, the latter paying all expenses.

No date. Memorial on Louisiana, disapproving the emission of paper money by the administrators of the colony; demoralization which must flow from such emissions.

1767. Pamphlet containing extracts on the following subjects:

No. 1. America civilized.

No. 2 to 7. Prophecy on America; the manufactures of North America destined to destroy the supremacy of Great Britain.

Portfolio No. 6.

1668. Letter from Mr. Aubry explaining the extreme difficulty of his position, compelled as he was, being a French Governor, to govern for the king of Spain; Governor Ulloa with only ninety soldiers not deeming it prudent to receive possession of the colony.

1767. Agreement between Aubry and Ulloa, by which the former consents to defer the delivery of Louisiana to the latter, both in the mean time governing the colony.

1767. Mr. Aubry expressing his desire for the arrival of Spanish troops in order to give up the government of Louisiana; states his joint action with Ulloa in all necessary measures; complains of Ulloa's quick temper, &c., &c.

1766. Instructions to Mr. Aubry for the cession of Louisiana.

1765. Letter from Aubry to Governor Johnson of Mobile; explaining his difficult position regarding the Indians; promises his best efforts to maintain peace.

1777. Letter from Messrs. d'Aunoy and Villars to the French government, announcing the seizure by Governor Galvez of 11 English ships richly laden and moored opposite to some of the plantations, and his defence to the planters under heavy penalties to carry on any traffic with the English.

8th Thermidor. Refutation by General Milford Tartargny of an article in the Gazette de France, recommending the cession of Louisiana to the United States Louisiana, being there represented as a narrow strip of moving sands, marshes, and bogs, etc.

1769. Extract from the registers of the "conseil supérieur," containing transcript of a letter dated Port au Prince, 9th February, 1769, and signed St. Leger, in the name of the "conseil souverain" of that place, approving the rebels in driving out of the country Governor Ulloa, and of another letter from the Doyen of the council of Port au Prince couched in nearly the same words.

No date. Soundings of the coast of Florida, the Tortugas, of St. Rose Island, of Pensacola and of Mobile, by M. de Iberville from 1698 to 1699; at the Balize in 1733, to 1736 and 1737; Passe à la Leutre, 15½ feet; soundings of Ship Island in 1698 by M. de Iberville; also of the Chandleur Islands, bay of St. Bernard in 172 , etc.

No date. Memorial advising the French republic to demand the cession of Louisiana.

1759. Memorial on Louisiana; project proposed for the colonization of that province by Bertrand Duvernet, on condition of a grant of 40 leagues of land on both sides of the river from the city of New Orleans up.

1751. Observations on two circumstances considered as favorable to the improvement of Louisiana; this document is not without interest.

1752. Memorial of Mr. Dubreuil Villars relative to the agriculture of Louisiana.

1741. Memorial on tobacco.

1750. Memorial on Louisiana, and a project for the cultivation of tobacco on a large scale.

PORTFOLIO NO. 7.

No date.—Memorial containing the history of Louisiana since its discovery by La Salle in 1682. It appears that nothing was done until after the peace of Burwick. Mr. d'Iberville at that epoch was entrusted with a new expedition and was accompanied by his brother, M. de Bienville, who remained in that colony as Lieutenant-governor until 1712, when Mr. de la Mothe Cadillac took charge of the government, having been appointed Governor in the room of Mr. Dumerry, who had died during his passage from France. Mr. Crozat on the 14th September 1712, obtained by letters patent of the king, the exclusive privilege of the commerce of the colony; this privilege Mr. Crozat gave up in 1717, and in August of the same year, the same exclusive privilege was granted by letters of patent to the West India Company, that company having been established by an edict of the king at the same time; this latter privilege was granted for 25 years, to wit: from the first of January, 1718 to the first December 1742, and included the fur trade. The whole of this document, which appears to have been written about the year 1730, is interesting.

1732.—Highly interesting letter from the "missionaire," Mr. R. P. Baudoin, on the Tchactas nation, dated from their village of Tchicachee.

1740.—Memorial of Mr. Dubreuil on the subject of a canal undertaken by him one league above New Orleans, and of the great advantages that may be derived from the whole of the Barrataria district.

No date.—Memorial on the Indians of Louisiana; their number and the commerce that can be carried on with them.

No date.—Memorial containing a description of Louisiana, of its ports, of its soil, of its rivers, of the Indian nations, and pointing out the great advantages to be derived by colonization. This paper is evidently of a very ancient date.

No date.—Memorial to induce France to retain Louisiana; speaks of the several climates and of the facility with which it might be made to supply France with silk, tobacco, cotton, &c.

No date.—Memorial pointing out the necessity of fixing the limits between Canada and Louisiana.

1748.—Mr. Michel opposing the reunion of Canada and Louisiana.

1754.—Memorial from Messrs. Kerlerec and d'Auberville, recommending a floating battery at the Balize.

1750.—Memorial on the situation of the inhabitants of Louisiana, and of the advantages to be derived by an importation of negroes to be employed in the cultivation of tobacco.

1750.—Letter from Mr. Livaudais on the changes produced in the passes by the equinoxial gales; in the month of July this engineer states the passes to have been S. S. E. and N. N. W., and at the time he was penning his report they were E. and W.

1741.—Paper relative to the advantages the public service might derive from the timber on the Barrataria.

1764.—Mr. Aubry announcing the delivery to Great Britain of the portion of Louisiana ceded, and mentioning the failure of an expedition to Illinois by the English.

1741.—Messrs. de Bienville and Salmon, handing the report of Mr. Duvergé on the Balize; of the changes of different epochs; refers to several charts I have not been able to discover; this document is interesting.

1760.—Mr. de Rochemore, on the sugar cane, cultivated by the Jesuits in 1744, in their gardens.

1724.—Report on the mine "de Lamothe," distant 14 leagues from Kaskassia.

1780.—Letter from Mr. Fabre Daunoy to the French government announcing the expedition of Mr. de Galvez at the head of two thousand men for Mobile, where he is said to expect a reinforcement of two thousand more from Havana, the whole of the force then to march against Pensacola; advising the capture of the British possessions on the Mississippi.

No date.—Memorial on Louisiana, showing that the first establishment in Louisiana was at Mobile, where a fort was built; the next at Biloxi, where are two copper mines; and then at New Orleans Barrataria is represented as a valuable section for its timber. The author says that at Natchitoches near the village of Caddaquioux is to be found a very rich silver mine, the produce of which had been tried by a Portuguese named Antoine, a miner from Mexico. He speaks of the emigration to Louisiana of Canadian families in 1686; states that in 1699, Mr. de Iberville arrived with another colony of Canadians, which was followed by other families headed by a Mr du Tessenet; the emigrants came by land, first ascending the St Laurent to Lake Erie, then ascending a small river emptying itself in that lake, to the *Portage des Miamis;* their effects being thence transported by the Indians to the river Miamis, where pirogues, ou of a single tree, and large enough to contain 30 persons, were built for the voyage down the Mississippi, first descending the *Oyo.* The author further points out the high lands of Manshac as the best place for a city, and New Orleans as a place of deposit; the whole of the document is interesting.

1685.—M. de Beaujeu, on the expedition of La Salle which terminated his life; advises the minister to apply to Mr. Demanille, a priest of the Seminary of St. Sulpice, for information, he as well as himself having formed part of La Salle's expedition.

1736.—Interesting account of Du Tertre of the attack of the French to the number of 7 to 800 men on the fortified village of the Chicachas, on a hill at about 250 leagues from New Orleans—the French being defeated with a loss of 120 men; fortifications described; surrounded by timber one cubic foot placed circularly with three rows of loop holes; the Chicachas were bedded to the stomach in the earth, observed the greatest silence, and suffered the French to approach within good musket shot before firing; their first fire killed 50 men, the second 30, &c.

1702.—Memorial on the Mississippi and Mobile; reasons of M. de Iberville for giving the preference to Mobile; among others, the impossibility of forming a military establishment at the mouth of the Mississippi; population of Mobile 139, to wit: 9 officers, 24 sailors, 2 couriers, 14 workmen, 64 Canadians, 26 soldiers.

1720.—Interesting memorial on Louisiana, Bernard de la Harpe.

Having completed my labors in the archives of the navy department, I now send you the following titles of a few manuscripts deposited in the Bibliothèque du Roi, which I owe to the kindness of Mr. Jared Sparks:

"Relation ou annale véritable de ce qui s'est passé dans le Pays de la Louisiane, pendant 22 années, par Perricaul," (from 1700 to 1722,) small quarto, methodically written and divided into chapters, 374 pages.

"Journal du voyage de la Louisiane, fait par le Sr. Bernard de la Harpe, et des découvertes qu'il a faites dans la partie de l'ouest de cette colonie" (in the years from 1718 to 1722 inclusive). Large folio, 160 pages.

Sup. fi. (same volume as the above.) "Journal du voyage fait par deux frégates du Roy, la Pradine commandée par M. de Iberville, et le Marin, par M. le Chevalier de Surgères, qui partirent de Brest le 24th Oct. 1698." Large folio, 86 pages.

There are several other interesting letters and papers relating to Louisiana, in the same volume, and at the same period; also a manuscript map of the Mississippi river, dated 1700.

In this map the Red river is called *Sablonniére* the Arkansas, *Tonti*, and the Missouri, *Rivière des Osages*. You will also receive by this opportunity copies of two very interesting documents.

1st. 1st September, 1759, letter of Governor Aubry to his government, giving a full account of the occurrences in New Orleans on the arrival of Governor O'Reilly; of his participation in the arrest and condemnation of Messrs. de la Frenière and others; of the means used to bring the conspirators together at the government house, where they suddenly found themselves surrounded by a body of grenadiers, at the close of a speech of Governor O'Reilly, which is given at full length in said letter.

2d. Records of the trial and condemnation of Messrs. Nicholas Lafrenière, Jean Baptiste Noyan, Balthazar Mazan, Pierre Marquis, Joseph Villeré, Pierre Carrère, Pierre Hardi de Boisblanc, Joseph Petit, Jean Milhet, Joseph Milhet, Pierre Poupet, Julien Jerome Doucet, Foucault et Bienville, whereby it appears that Pierre Marquis was commander-in-chief; that his project was to establish a republic similar to that of Switzerland and a bank under the name of the "Mont de piété;" that this bank was put in operation under the direction of M. Hardi de Boisblanc; that a form of government had been prepared; that previous to his arrest, Marquis had thrown it into the fire; that on the 20th Oct., 1769, the accused were found guilty of high treason; that on the 24th, Governor O'Reilly approved the sentence, condemning Messrs. Nicholas Chauvin Lafreniére, Jean Baptiste Noyan, Pierre Carrère, Pierre Marquis, and Joseph Milhet, to be hung. And declaring infamous the memory of M. Villeré (killed in prison). Also condemning M. Joseph Petit to perpetual imprisonment in one of the strong castles of his Catholic Majesty. Messrs. Balthazar Mazan and Julien Jerome Doucet to 10 years' imprisonment; and Messrs. Pierre Hardi de Boisblanc, Jean Milhet, and Pierre Poupet, to six years' imprisonment; ordering all the papers, documents, &c., found in the possession of the conspirators to be burned on the public place by the public executioner, and confiscating

the whole of their property in favor of the crown. That on the 24th October, the Licentiate, Felix del Rey informed Governor O'Reilly, officially, that the above sentence could not be carried into execution because a hangman was not to be found in the country. That on the same day, Governor O'Reilly ordered the conspirators condemned to death to be shot. That on the 28th October, 1769, at 3 o'clock, P. M., Messrs. Nicholas Chauvin Lafrenière, Pierre Marquis, Joseph Milhet, Jean Baptiste Noyan, and Pierre Carrère, with their arms well secured by ropes, were taken out of the barracks of the regiment of Lisbon, where they had been imprisoned, and conducted under a strong escort of officers and grenadiers, to the place designated for their execution, where a large number of troops had been formed into a square; that their sentence was there read to them in the French language, immediately after which they were shot. That on the same day all the seditious papers found among the conspirators were burned on the public square. That on the following day Messrs. Joseph Petit, Balthazar Mazan, Julien Jerome Doucet, Pierre Hardi de Boisblanc, Jean Milhet, and Pierre Poupet, were shipped to Havana to be confined in the Moro Castle.

The whole of these records are of course only a one-sided account of the conspiracy of 1768. Having discovered that two deputies had been sent during the rebellion to the English governor of Pensacola, General Hardiman, to solicit the aid of the British government in behalf of the projected republic, and being anxious to trace this interesting fact, if possible, I called upon Mr. Stevenson, our ambassador, in London, a few days ago, to request him to obtain for me permission to examine the archives of those times of the British government, handing him at the same time, the date of the mission and the name of the English governor; this he declined to do on the ground that it could only be done through the Secretary of State at Washington.

In answer to your query as to what would be the probable cost of full certified copies of all the documents relative to Louisiana, deposited in the archives of the "Department de la Marine et des Colonies," I beg to state that it could be done at the rate of 4 cents per 100 words, or 7 cents per page, which, supposing 10,000 pages, and there are hardly so many, would be about $700.

Art. VIII.—POPULAR DELUSIONS IN EDUCATION.

In a former number, we animadverted upon the extent to which imposition has been, and still is, practised on the animal frame by *empirics*, and spoke of the great importance of medical practitioners being intimately acquainted with the laws of the human constitution, and the method of eradicating disease. While we would give no quarter to the *quack*, who sports with human life, and trusts to the green sod to cover all his blunders, we respect the experienced scientific man who has studied, deeply and successfully, the complicated machinery, kept so finely in motion by the combined influence of food, drink, heat and air.

Agreeably to the plan we have prescribed for ourselves, we must leave the consideration of what appertains to the outer man, or mere matter, and call the attention to the various impositions practised on mind—the nobler part of man—under the name of education. The body is merely the instrument—the curious and wonderfully contrived machine, with which that ever active agent works; and while it is of no small importance that when anything goes wrong with those springs which keep the wheels of life in motion, we should have ready at hand a class of men who can set the machinery again in proper order, without impairing or destroying the instrument, it is no less important that we have another class of men well acquainted with the still more subtle and curious workings of man's mental constitution, and able to direct it to all the high and noble purposes designed by its Creator.

Now, of the importance of a sound, substantial education, we need not speak. Its utility all proclaim. No nation, whether barbarous or polished, was ever known entirely to neglect education. Even savages, who have scarcely sufficient skill to erect themselves a hut, as a protection from the inclemency of the weather, soon discover the importance of communicating to their offspring a knowledge of those practices which necessity teaches them to adopt, and which experience convinces them are advantageous; and in every age, and in every country, men have evinced their sense of the importance of education, by bestowing upon it such attention as the circumstances in which they have been placed, and the degrees of civilization which they have attained, have enabled them to bestow. Education is in fact the grand engine on which, as it is well or ill conducted, the prosperity or ruin of states and nations ultimately depends. That it is badly conducted in many respects, there is not a doubt. With all our schools, and colleges, and universities, is it not remarkable how few good scholars are really made? Now, the cause must be either in the incompetency of those who profess to give instruction, or in the mode of teaching pursued. Let us look at each of these for a moment, and we will probably see that there is ample room for improvement in both cases.

In the first place, we maintain that to become an able, efficient teacher of youth, candidates for it should begin at an early period of life to qualify themselves for their future employment; and it is a strange anomaly that the aspirant to every handicraft should be compelled to serve an apprenticeship for several years, in order to make himself acquainted with its mysteries, while the teacher of youth is permitted to enter on his office without any previous training at all. There is no public provision for the professional education of schoolmasters.* Some few years ago, while traveling on the Erie canal,

* Here we cannot resist introducing a few sentences from the distinguished writer of "Elements of the Human Mind," who says, "that to instruct youth in the languages and sciences is, comparatively, of little importance, if we are inattentive to the habits they acquire, and if we be not careful in giving all the different faculties, and all their different principles of action, a proper degree of employment. Abstracting entirely from the culture of their moral powers, how extensive and difficult is the business of conducting their intellectual improvement. To watch over the associations which they form in their tender years, to give them early habits of activity, to rouse their curiosity, and to direct it to proper objects, to exercise their ingenuity and invention, to cultivate in their minds a turn for speculation, and at the same time preserve their attention alive to ob-

we entered into the following conversation with a young man at the helm: Well, how do you like this business? Tolerable; not hard work. Are you well paid for your services? Twenty dollars a month and found. Is it not a cold, disagreeable employment in winter? Yes, but I give up before winter, always. And what then do you do? *Keep school.* Where? In the country. And do you like that business? O yes, it is an easy kind of going business, and one needs not sweat. And what do you teach? Everything almost that's going, reading, writing, geography, *Bells Letters*, and astronomy. Pray, what is *Bells Letters?* O nothing but English *in high style.* Then, Mr. Bell writes good English, does he? I suppose so, said the scholastic pilot, swinging his long rudder to one end, to let another vessel pass, I know nothing of the gentleman, but that he has written a book. Such was a part of a conversation with one who professed to "teach the young idea how to shoot," in the winter season, when he could get nothing else to do, and there is no doubt he is not a solitary instance of teachers not trained to the profession in early life.

The canal boatman is only *one* of the thousand cases of individuals who engage in the difficult and responsible profession of training the tender mind, and inspiring it with a love of knowledge and virtue. It is, therefore, to be deeply regretted that so many instructors of youth are incompetent to the task, and that the young should suffer from their want of the proper qualifications. Passing down a street in an obscure part of a city, we were much amused in reading the following notice of one of the "school-masters who are abroad:"

Plane reeding and spelling taught here for 25 cents per week.
Reeding with explanations 30 cents.
Grammer by the month, a dollar.

The following method of teaching mathematics, though correct in spelling, is also in point: "Those who attend the classes under my care, must bear in mind, that the proposition and demonstration must be fairly written on a wafer with ink, composed of a cephalic tincture. This must be swallowed by every student of mathematics, upon an empty stomach, and for three following days he must eat nothing but bread and drink nothing but water. As the wafer digests, the tincture mounts to the brain of the student, bearing the proposition and demonstration along with it. The above should be regarded as the royal road to geometry." This professional card was somewhere published, and we are inclined to regard it as a fine satire upon ignorance aspiring to teach knowledge; though the progress of quackery has been such that we should not at all wonder if it was intended to induce, and did in fact induce, the attendance of pupils.

But not only in the teacher, but in the methods of teaching, do we find the same gross perversions. We have good reason to be suspi-

jects around them, to awaken their attention to the beauties of nature, and to inspire them with a relish for intellectual enjoyment, these form but a part of the business of education; and yet the execution even of this part requires an acquaintance with the general principles of our nature, which seldom falls to the share of those to whom the instruction of youth is generally entrusted." Who that reads the above, and seriously considers the full import of the passage, and would take upon him the responsible profession of teaching, is not ready to say, "Who is sufficient for these things?"

cious of new plans and discoveries, and locomotive speed in matters of education. The man that professes to teach reading in twenty lessons, geography in six, and writing in four, is a charlatan. What Archimedes said to Dionysius, there is no royal road to mathematics, is true of every branch of literature and science. The steps of learning can only be mastered by time, diligence, and toil, and we may rest assured, that whatever system states the contrary, is all deception. The greatest scholars, and the profoundest philosophers, were formed in schools where the good old way of assiduous application, and strict mental discipline, were established and prized. Feeble sciolists and empty praters may be formed without study, but the scholar and the philosopher, never. The most eminent are generally the most laborious; and it is not to be doubted, that all whom we are now accustomed to admire, attained excellence by the gradual process of persevering industry. Away, then, with the idea of acquiring science and languages and geography *in a few lessons*. The fact is, ease and simplicity are too much in vogue now. Science comes in the changing form of Proteus: it must be stripped of its difficulties; it must be popular. Mathematics must be brought down from its lofty pedestal and made to prattle in the language of childhood. Abridgments, and explanations, and conversations without end, rise upon the labors of Euclid, Playfair and La Place. In this benevolent age, it is to be feared, the helps to learning are multiplying so fast, that the young will abandon all effort to help themselves.

Another popular error, in conducting the education of youth, is, lengthened confinement at school. Nothing is better calculated to make a dolt—nothing better fitted to stupefy and injure the intellectual powers—than long, continuous plodding over books in childhood, without a change of position. In the "statutes and regulations" of a school in our city, there is the following—"Day scholars must remain in the institution from seven o'clock till half past six, with the exception of the hour set apart for dinner and recreation." We are inclined to think, that five or six hours' mental employment per day is quite sufficient, because the improvement of the mind, and success in the acquisition of knowledge does, by no means, depend on the length of time professedly engaged, but in the intensity of mind put forth. We know that some parents fancy long hours at school are essential to improvement; and ill-trained children are so troublesome at home, that mothers feel a preference for the school that keeps them longest out of their sight, if they have, at the same time, the assurance that they are out of harm's way. Hence, a sort of competition among teachers, who shall give the *longest hours*, which, in many instances that have come under our own observation, are extended, particularly during the summer, from eight in the morning till six in the evening, with only one regular hour of intermission. Thus are the interests of the youth, both as to health of body and soundness of mind, too often sacrificed in a contest between the folly and selfishness of parents on the one hand, and the cupidity and imbecility of teachers on the other. It might be a good regulation to have the hour of meeting at school *fixed*, when that of leaving it should be a movable point, to be determined by the degree of

successful exertion put forth. Tell a boy that he has a certain series of tasks to perform, with the assurance that when they are thoroughly well done, his time shall be at his own disposal, and it is astonishing with what alacrity he will address himself to the work put before him. Indeed, such will be the rapidity of his execution as, at first, to confound and embarrass his incredulous teacher, and make him half repent of the experiment. Nothing, then, we believe, has a more prejudicial influence on the juvenile intellect, than long hours, the half of which are generally spent in indolence, rather than in mental activity.

On the subject of corporeal punishment, there have been, and still are, conflicting opinions; and when writing on popular errors connected with education, it may not be improper to offer a few observations on discipline.

We believe it to be a fundamental principle, on which all good teaching may be said to rest, that corporeal punishment, if not banished altogether from school, should not be resorted to till every other method of correction has failed. Those who maintain that corporeal punishment should be abolished from schools, argue on the ground, that the lash is an unworthy mode of influencing the youthful mind; and that fear has a tendency to corrupt the young heart. We sincerely believe that suffering is not of itself a good thing for the young; that unhappiness at school is of no use for mental discipline or the formation of character, and that many teachers have erred in the way they have inflicted punishments on the young delinquents. We are opposed to the indulgence of all pique, prejudice, partiality, and, above all, of anger, and violence, and cruelty, in administering correction to youth; but till the commencement of that blessed era, "when He that made the earth and created man upon it, shall raise him up in righteousness and direct all his ways," we fear the rod of correction will, as it has been from the earliest of ages, be a necessary instrument in the hand of the teacher of youth.

Dr. Goldsmith, who at one time of his life was a teacher, says, that "whatever pains a master may take to make learning agreeable to his pupil, he may depend it will be at first extremely unpleasant. The rudiments of every language, therefore, must be given as a task, not as an amusement. Attempting to deceive children into instruction of this kind, is only deceiving ourselves; and I know," says he, "of no passion capable of conquering a child's natural laziness, but *fear*. It is very probable that parents are told of some masters that never use the rod, and, consequently, are thought the most proper instructors of their children; but though tenderness is a requisite quality in an instructor, yet there is often the truest tenderness in well-timed correction." Let us hear the opinion of that colossus of literature, Dr. Johnson. A gentleman having expressed to him his wonder that he should be possessed of such an immense stock of scholastic lore, particularly as he acknowledged his constitutional indolence: "My school-master beat me *most unmercifully*," said the doctor, "else I had done nothing;" and it is well known that Johnson dictated a speech to Boswell, in palliation of the conduct of a school-teacher who was prosecuted for criminal severity, in which he justifies corporeal punishment in cases of moral delinquency, and

even with respect to the use of the rod, as an excitement to duty, though he seems rather to condemn the practice, yet in some particular cases, he admitted it might be necessary. Strict discipline in childhood and early youth, is essential to the formation of virtuous character; but all cruelty, and punishment unnecessarily severe, we condemn. No one can doubt, however, that fear is implanted in the human breast for the wisest and best of purposes; and it is not the least influential of the passions. We are rather inclined to believe, how little soever it may redound to the honor of our nature, that fear, in its various modifications, exerts a more powerful influence over the mind of man, in restraining him from vices and inducing rectitude of conduct, than the love of virtue, and the desire of acting in conformity with the external fitness of things, have the power to produce; and that upon the generality of youth at school, it has a more salutary effect in preserving order and enforcing attention than the "appetite for knowledge," though stimulated by the most effectual training.*

We have touched on a few of the popular errors in education, and, if what has been advanced are the words of "truth and soberness," they can be offensive only to charlatans. The antagonist of every system of error is truth. The love and cultivation of truth will go far to secure us from imposition of every description. Let us cherish it.

Art. IX.—THE BILL OF EXCHANGE AND BILL OF LADING.

SUPREME COURT OF LOUISIANA—Monday, 1st June, 1846.

A. Lanfear & Co. vs. *Blossman.—Appeal.*

THIS is an action brought by the holder against the indorser, who was also the drawer of a bill of exchange for £3,324 4*s*. 3*d*., drawn in New Orleans on Fermin de Tastet & Co., of London, at sixty days after sight, and dated the 23d of February, 1844.

The bill of exchange was purchased by the plaintiff from Blossman, the drawer and indorser in New Orleans, and with it the bill of lading upon which the bill of exchange was drawn, was delivered by the broker who made the bargain between them.

The bill of lading was for three hundred and fifty-four bales of cotton, shipped by the *Provincialist*, and was indorsed in blank. The bill of exchange was also indorsed in blank.

The bill of exchange, accompanied with the bill of lading, was remitted to Prime, Ward & King, of New York, and by them negotiated to Baring, Brothers & Co., of London. De Tastet & Co.

* We do not understand our contributor to advocate *corporeal punishment* at school, except as an extreme measure, justified only by the grossest delinquencies. Even in this case we ourselves *doubt*, and the question can by no means be considered settled. The present age is decidedly against all violent coercion at schools, and if it goes too far, the error is on the side we would far rather have it. Theorizing and speculating upon Education will never be at end until mental philosophy is perfect, and man's intellectual nature comprehended in all its delicate manifestations; a thing we regard as impossible.—EDITOR.

offered to accept the bill on presentation, but insisted on having the bill of lading delivered to them. This was declined, and the bill was protested for non-acceptance, and subsequently for non-payment.

The cotton was taken possession of by Baring, Brothers & Co. under the bill of lading, and disposed of. It did not produce a sufficient sum to satisfy the bill; this suit was instituted for the recovery of the amount thereof, damages, interest and costs.

We shall not decide the question raised on the sufficiency of the notice, as it was not argued at bar. It was admitted on the trial, that the defendant was entitled to a credit on the bill for £2,120 2*s*. 3*d*., to date, on the 16th September, 1844.

There was judgment in the court below for the defendant, and the plaintiff has appealed.

The question which has been argued before us, and on which the case is held to turn, is, whether De Tastet & Co. had a right to insist on the delivery of the bill of lading on accepting the bill of exchange; or, in other words, whether Baring, Brothers & Co. had a right to retain the bill of lading until the payment of the bill of exchange.

The facts are so few and simple, that there is no necessity to refer to them particularly; the subject can be examined in the abstract, under the different views which have been presented to us by counsel.

It is proved, that had the bill been accepted at the time of its presentation, it would have been paid, and that the only obstruction to its acceptance and payment arose from the course adopted by Baring, Brothers & Co., in relation to the acceptance.

We do not consider the evidence as seriously affecting the credit of De Tastet & Co., so far as their rights in this suit are to be considered.

I. But we must first disembarrass the case of some questions that are not immediately connected with the subject under the point of view in which we shall determine it.

Both parties rely upon a usage which each insists is established by conclusive evidence in his favor. On this subject of a usage or custom of trade, which is to control and regulate the rights of parties, we concur with the learned Judge of the Commercial Court in adopting the language of Judge Story in the case of the schooner Reedside.—2 Summer Rep. p. 569:

"I am, myself, no friend to the almost indiscriminate habit of late years, of setting up particular usages or customs, in almost all kinds of business and trade, to control, vary, or annul the general liabilities of parties, under the common law, as well as under the commercial law. It has always appeared to me that there is no small danger in admitting such loose and inconclusive usages and customs, often unknown to particular parties, and always liable to great misunderstanding, and misinterpretations, and abuses, to outweigh the well-known and well-settled principles of law. And I rejoice to find, that of late years, the courts of law, both in England and America, have been disposed to narrow the limits of the operation of such usages and customs, and to discountenance any farther extension of them. The true and appropriate office of usage, or custom, is to

interpret the otherwise indeterminate intentions of parties, and to ascertain the nature and extent of their contracts, arising, not from express stipulations, but from mere implications, and presumptions, or acts of a doubtful or equivocal character, etc., etc." And again, in Donnell, et al. *vs.* Columbia Insurance Company—2 Summer Rep. p. 377: "Usages among merchants should be very sparingly adopted, as rules of law, by courts of justice, as they are often founded on mere mistakes, and still more often, in the want of enlarged and comprehensive views of the full bearing of principles."

We have examined the testimony of the witnesses with attention, and have come to the conclusion, that so far from establishing the existence of a usage or custom, on this subject, the evidence proves that it is involved in great doubt and uncertainty, even in the minds of experienced and judicious merchants. The fact of private agreements being executed, in authorizing the retention of the bills of lading accompanying bills of exchange, and of instructions being required by the bankers in London in relation thereto, tends to show an unsettled state of opinion touching the rights and liabilities of the parties to the bills.

In relation to bills of exchange, drawn in the East Indies and accompanied by bills of lading, the usage to retain the bills of lading until payment of the bill, is proved to exist. But this case appears to us to present an exception, and not the rule itself, as to *all bills* accompanied by bills of lading. Nothing could more strongly indicate this state of things than the errors of opinion into which intelligent persons have fallen in respect to the unlimited power with which the holder of the bill of exchange is supposed to be invested under all circumstances, and which several respectable witnesses maintained with unquestionable sincerity.

II. Those witnesses who testified most strongly for the plaintiffs, on the point of custom or usage, went no farther than to say, that the matter lay wholly in the discretion of the bill-holder in England; but they all admitted that it would be considered unusual to refuse to give up the bill of lading if the house accepting had a first rate standing.

The position assumed by the plaintiffs is, that on acceptance of the bill of exchange, it is in the absolute and entire discretion of the bill-holder, or his agent in London, to give up the bill of lading, or retain it until final payment.

This position is suicidal; for if the bill-holder, or his agent, has the absolute right to retain the bill of lading, to give it up in any instance would be to discharge every previous name upon the bill. What merchant, whatever might be his standing, whether a friend or indifferent to the agent in London, could expect him to do an act which would involve such consequences? It is also to be observed, that in customs and usages of trade, there is no such thing as discretion; they are absolute, imperative and universal, in favor of and against all the parties to the contract, when no special agreement to the contrary is made. It is clear, that if there existed any such custom or usage of trade, to retain the bill of lading until the payment of the bill of exchange, if the bill of lading was given up in any case

before payment, the drawer and every indorser would be discharged, because their rights have been impaired.

The giving up the bill of lading in the acceptance cannot be *optional* with the holder of the bill of exchange. He is bound either to give it up or retain it.

III. The supposed difficulties in this case arise from a course of business which has of late years grown up in this city, in operating the change of ownership of the produce shipped to this mart for sale. This great mutation of property is produced by means of bills of exchange, and when the credit of the drawer of the bill is not sufficient to give it currency, a bill of lading for the produce, on which the bill is drawn, is appended to it and sold with it, so that the holder has not only the names on the bill for his security, but the bill of lading and the shipment it represents.

The movement of the market being thus accomplished, by means of bills of exchange, it is obvious that when a bill of exchange with a bill of lading appended to it is sold, the fair inference is, that the drawer could not have sold his bill without the additional security of the bill of lading, or that the purchaser would not take it without such security; and that the bill represents either the price of the property sold, or the reimbursement of the price to some party.

The holder of the two bills, then, had in his possession the property and the obligation for the price, and with these in his hands presents himself to the drawee of the bill of exchange and demands its acceptance.

Now the merchant on whom the bill is drawn, has either authorized the purchase of the shipment, or he has not. If the shipment is on his account, he is only bound to pay for it at the expiration of sixty days after the presentation of the bill, and is entitled to this credit on the face of the contract to which his direct obligation is demanded. If it is not on his account, the drawer stipulated for him the same term of credit on his acceptance of the bill, and no other conditions can be exacted from him by the holder. In either case how can the drawee of the bill be required to give out his name, unconditionally, for the price before the property is delivered to him, or how can the holder of the bill exact from the acceptor his obligation for the price, and retain the thing for which the obligation is given? To say nothing of the unreasonableness of such a proposition, the incompatibility of such a state of things with commercial transactions among persons of credit, is so palpable as to render its existence problematical.

Nor is there anything forced in assimilating the holder of the bill of lading to the vendor. The holder of the bill of lading is considered as standing in the place of the vendor by the English law.—Abbot on Shipping, tit. *Stoppage in transitu*—Cross on liens, id. and cases there cited.

But if we consider the position of the drawee of the bill, the same conclusion forces itself upon us. If the shipment is his, or has been ordered by him, the transfer of the property to him is the consideration of the acceptance which he is to give out; and if it be on account of others, the consignment is the consideration—the benefit which he derives from the commission and profits for doing the busi-

ness of another person. The property is his guaranty against loss, and he has sixty days to dispose of it and apply the proceeds to the payment of the bill of exchange drawn upon him.—Muson *vs.* Hunt, 1 Douglass' R. 299.

IV. We believe there is no instrument, the relations of the parties to which are so frequently changed by parol evidence, as bills of exchange. The whole doctrine of accommodation bills, and the inquiry into the consideration of bills, prove this fact beyond contestation. The rule is properly confined to the original parties to the bills, and to those who have received the bills under notice.

"What circumstances will amount to actual or constructive notice of every defect or infirmity in the title to the bill, so as to let it in as a bar or defense against a holder for value, has been a matter of much discussion, and of no small diversity of judicial opinion. It is agreed on all sides, that express notice is not indispensable, but it will be sufficient if the circumstances are of such a strong and pointed character as necessarily to cast a shade on the transaction and to put the holder on inquiry."—Story on Bills of Exchange, § 194.

The value of a bill of exchange depends solely upon the certainty of its being paid in all events, and its being entirely independent of the original consideration upon which it was drawn. This is the element of its circulation, and its being used as a part of the currency in all mercantile operations.

The difficulties in this case arise from the attempt to make the bill —which is drawn on a particular shipment, with its consideration in a manner appended to it, and held and retained by the holder of the bill as a security, without which he would not have taken the bill—a current bill of exchange forming a part of the mercantile currency, passing from hand to hand, like a bank note, without any reference to, or connection with its original consideration.

V. It is not pretended that the bill of lading connects, in any manner, the holder of the bill with any of the transactions relating to the property which it represents, but it is said in this case, the bill of exchange having been discounted with the bill of lading, both instruments must be consulted in order to ascertain the agreement between the parties—they constituting in fact but one contract. The Judge of the Commercial Court has thus given his views on this subject:

"I shall examine the question presented in this case under both points of view.

"First; What are the legal consequences and inferences to be deduced from the act of the drawer of a bill of exchange and shipper of cotton presenting such bill of exchange accompanied by a bill of lading to a capitalist or banker for discount? In such an act there is a direct implication that the bill of exchange is drawn against the property covered by the bill of lading; in such cases the property covered by the bill of lading, or to avoid periphrasis, we will say, the cotton is either bought by virtue of orders given by the foreign house on whom the bill is drawn, in which case the bill of exchange is to be considered as drawn to pay for the cotton, or else it is a shipment by the drawer of the bill of exchange of cotton bought for his own account and risk, and the bill of exchange is to be considered as a demand upon the English house to make an advance upon the cotton

thus shipped to their consignment. If the cotton has been bought by virtue of orders given, it is easy to perceive that the English house may refuse to accept, on the ground that their orders have been violated or departed from in some particulars, which violation or departure authorizes them to refuse acceptance. In the present case, a very intelligent witness gave it as his opinion that the orders had been violated so as to authorize De Tastet & Co. to refuse acceptance; perhaps I do not concur in this opinion, and I do not cite it as bearing upon the case, because acceptance was not refused on that ground, but only to illustrate the general principle of the risk which buyers of these bills run, when they purchase or discount them. On the other hand, if the bill of exchange is a demand for an advance on the shipment, made on the shipper's account, the house on whom the bill of exchange is drawn may refuse to accept, because it considers the advance exceeds the value of the property, which may also come to a falling market, and the house may be unwilling to become the creditors of the drawer of the bill of exchange. The bill of exchange, in its inception, is an incomplete contract, and is only rendered complete by the acceptance of the person on whom it was drawn.

"It is manifest that such are the facts and circumstances out of which the double contract springs, and that they ought to regulate and govern the rights of the parties."

In relation to this undoubted and well-known origin of bills of this sort, the testimony of the witnesses of the plaintiff is not unimportant. E. J. Forstall says, "he has done a great deal of business in exchange. Is of opinion that bills of lading are the security for the payment of bills of exchange. Houses to whom bills of exchange are sent always prefer instructions being sent as to giving up bills of lading when acceptances are made, otherwise they are placed in a position of responsibility by giving them up on their own account." Being asked by the court whether, when a bill of lading accompanies a bill of exchange, it is or is not a direct implication that the bill of exchange is drawn against the property owned by the bill of lading, the witness answers in the affirmative.

Samuel Nicholson has been a large dealer in exchange in New Orleans since 1837. "*The practice of attaching bills of lading of cotton to bills of exchange, is very common.*"

Edward Shiff—"*When he receives a bill of exchange accompanied by a bill of lading, considers the former drawn upon the property represented by the latter.*"

Frederick Frey—"The bill of exchange is predicated on the cotton represented by bill of lading."

James Conrey—"Considers a bill of lading accompanying a bill of exchange, according to common usage, security for the acceptance and payment of such bill."

"Butson Maury—"Has sold bills of exchange with bills of lading without any specific agreement."

James R. Behn—"Is of opinion that bills of lading when attached to bills of exchange, stand as security for both acceptance and payment."

Fames, a witness for the defendant, negotiated the bill to the plaintiff—he says, "on a little hesitation being exhibited by the latter—

Lanfear—proposed to get the bill of lading from Blossman, when the money was paid."

The bill sued on was forwarded by the plaintiff to Prime, Ward, & King, of New York, and by their clerk this memorandum was written on it: "Bill of lading for 344 B. cotton, pr. Provincialist, as hereto annexed."

The bill was negotiated by Prime, Ward, & King, to Baring, Brothers & Co., of London. Being the judges of the facts, as well as of the law, we are not permitted to impute to that eminent commercial house any want of knowledge concerning the course of trade in bills of exchange, accompanied by bills of lading of cotton shipped from this port to its market abroad. In this case the memorandum on the bill of exchange fixed its character beyond any reasonable doubt.

VI.—In determining the question as to the right of the holders of the bill of exchange to withhold the bill of lading after the acceptance of the former was tendered, we are at a loss for any *positive* authority of decisions in the English courts.

We have not been favored with the opinions of any counsel in England on this subject, which could easily have been had, and which would have been of great assistance to us. We must decide according to the lights we have before us.

There does not appear to be any controversy about the right of the holder of the bill of exchange to retain the bill of lading in case of the imminent insolvency of the drawee. The counsel who argued this case did not differ as to the course the holder might, for his security, adopt in such a state of things.

It is impossible for us, under the evidence and our own positive knowledge of what is passing every day under our own eyes, to consider this transaction otherwise than as one and indivisible, and that Baring, Brothers & Co., so far as to any obligations on their part resulting from the possession of the bill of lading, were in the situation of the original purchasers of the bill of exchange, of which the bill of lading, the memorandum in the bill of exchange gave them full notice, and that they were bound to know and did know what the respectable witnesses of the plaintiff concur in opinion about as to the origin and character of these hybrid instruments.

The hypothesis which isolates the bill of exchange from all the facts with which it originated, and separates it from the shipment upon which it was drawn, we cannot consider as tenable. Were the drawees bound to accept before the bill of lading was presented to them? Suppose accident or bad faith were to have separated the two instruments—suppose each of them to be negotiated to different persons for value, could the holder of the bill of exchange alone insist on the acceptance when the bill of lading should be outstanding?

The holder of the bill insists that he is not bound to part with his main security, and the acceptor, that he is not bound to accept without having the consignment, which is the consideration of his becoming a party to the bill in putting his name out. In the one case the holder runs the risk of the credit of the parties to the bill; in the other the acceptor that of the good faith of the holder, who, by putting the bill of lading in circulation may deprive the acceptor of the property

which the acceptor has a right to have applied to the payment of the bill.

VII.—It is urged that by considering the bill of exchange as dependent on the bill of lading, the doctrine of the negotiability of bills of exchange as established by the law-merchant is violated. But this is the very question in dispute, which is, whether this bill, with the bill of lading, *is a bill of exchange* in the mercantile sense? It wants the essential requisite of a bill of exchange, which is, that it is negotiable and payable at all events, independent of its consideration. A bill with a condition like this appended to it, with an agreement from which it cannot be separated, may be called a bill of exchange, but it wants the requisites which alone give it value and consideration.

The case cited, of Muson *v.* Hunt, was determined by the Court of King's Bench, in 1779, and which we are not aware ever to have been overruled. It was tried before Lord Mansfield, at Guildhall, and the opinion of the court was delivered by him after a full argument at bar. It was by that able and learned bench directed, that an agreement to accept a bill on certain conditions is discharged if the conditions are not complied with—and if there is a virtual acceptance on consideration that goods shall be consigned to the acceptor to answer the bill, together with a policy of insurance on them, the holder of the bill, by taking the goods and selling them, discharges the acceptance. 1 Douglas, 296.

In this case the dependence of bills of exchange on agreements imposing conditions connected with their consideration is expressly recognized.

"An agreement to accept is still but an agreement, and if it is conditional, and a third person takes the bill knowing of the conditions, he takes it subject to such conditions," says Lord Mansfield. We cite:

Upon a refusal to accept the bills drawn and a negotiation of two or three days, the holder and drawees of the bills signed a memorandum by which the former took the bill of lading and policy of insurance, and undertook to apply the proceeds of the profits, as far as they would go, in part payment of the bills. There was a deficiency, and this action was brought against the defendants as acceptors of the bills drawn on the consignments for the difference. And the court came to the conclusion that if there was an acceptance, the conduct of the holder of the bill of exchange under the memorandum and agreement discharged them. In the conclusion of the opinion the chief-justice remarked: "The temptation to accept was the commission on the consignment, and they (the defendants) were to have the security of the goods and the insurance. But the plaintiff undoes all this, and says, 'then I will take all from you, security, commission,' &c. This was saying, 'I will stand in your place, but not so as to be answerable for more than the produce of the tobacco.' It is impossible that the defendants could mean to accept without any benefit or security. We are all clear that this made an end of the agreement. In this case the bill of lading was delivered up by the party sought to be made liable *as acceptor*, and there was a previous agreement, of which the holder had notice."

The facts in this case of Muson *v.* Hunt, are not in many respects similar to those in that under consideration. What was made out by positive testimony in that case we arrive at in this by necessary implication.* But some of the same reasons given in the opinion delivered by Lord Mansfield are the same to which we have arrived at in investigating with great attention the obligations of the parties in the present litigation, in which we have had the assistance of the judge of the Commercial Court of New Orleans, in the able and lucid opinion he has prepared with great care and accuracy.

We can come to no other conclusion than that the acceptance was to be the consideration for the consignment, which the holders of the bill had no right to retain when they exacted the acceptance; that there is nothing in the evidence which authorizes such a proceeding; that the drawees were not bound to accept the bill except on the delivery of the bill of lading, and in refusing to accept, as they did, there has been no default on their part. The bill was therefore protested without cause, and the drawers are discharged.

It is vain to attempt to reconcile irreconcilable things, or to determine the obligations of parties to an instrument like this under consideration, by a standard to which it cannot in reason be applied. These bills are entitled to no credit and ought to receive none as constituting a part of the commercial currency of the country. They have a condition coupled to them which strikes at the very root of their availability, and those who take them cannot complain of the hazards to which they think proper to expose their business.

The judgment of the Commercial Court is therefore sustained.*

* The similar case of Jacob Little *vs.* Blossman & De Tastet & Co., will be published in our next.

With this we conclude the first volume of a work begun amid every discouragement. It has progressed slowly, but regularly. The editor has labored assiduously night and day with but one purpose. He would give to the South, the West, and the Union, a work which shall represent all their great practical interests. This is the high mark and it *will be* reached.

444

END OF VOL. I.

26 of 100 Separates.

De Bow's Review.

Reprinted from the June Issue of the Tulane University Magazine.

One of the greatest polemical institutions of the Old South, an institution as powerful as slavery itself, was the old De Bow Review. It held the place during the ante bellum period now held by the *North American Review*, and like that magazine, sided with no one side in political controversy. Its policy was to let both sides speak for themselves: they always did, but invariably from a Southern point of view. From the day of its birth to the death of De Bow in '67, the *Review* did more in strengthening the Confederate cause and in moulding public opinion in the South, than any other single means. There have been attempts and excuses at representative magazines, both in the South and throughout the country, but none that ever occupied or ever will occupy, such a position as that held by the *Commercial Review*.

In the May *Collegian* for 1900, was published an essay on the possibility of the establishment of a great magazine, representing all Southland, and established here in the great Crescent Metropolis on the banks of the Mississippi. The writer in his enthusiasm called up as evidence in behalf of his argument past glories of Dixie Land. He spoke of Hayne, Lanier, Timrod and Col. Wm. Preston Johnston, as representatives of poetry; of Cable, Harris, Davis, Opie Read and Ruth McEnery Stuart as that of fiction, and gloried over the talents of our essayists, thinkers, men of science, historians and literature in general, in proof that the South indeed lacks not talent and ability to support a magazine worthy of the whole nation. Utopian though such dreams may be, they show a spirit and patriotism that reflects due credit upon their author. It was more, however, than any lack of resources that prevented the establishment of a great publication, purely literary in character, here in the South. Like other calamities, social, industrial and political, art, science and literature were in their turn crippled by our disastrous Civil War. Before the War, the drawing room

and the literary club had not yet superseded the ax and the plow, and as a result the wholly literaray magazine failed to prosper. About 1846, however, a young man from South Carolina, Mr. J. D. B. DeBow, supplied the wants of the people in introducing to the world, the *Commercial Review of the Southern and Western States*, a journal at first devoted for the most part to the interests of trade and agriculture.

James Dunwoody Brownson De Bow was born in Charleston, S. C., July 10, 1820. His life, from the time he left college to the day of his death in 1867, was taken up with journalistic work. During his twenty years management of the celebrated De Bow's Review, he wielded an influence over politics and public opinion in the Southern States only surpassed by the great Calhoun himself. His life was beset with many hardships, but nothing could turn him aside from the great task which he had set himself to do. His troubles began even while at Charleston College, where he struggled against poverty, while endeavoring to get an education. In 1843, however, he graduated with all the honors of his class, and was shortly after admitted to the bar. He nevertheless very soon gave up the study of law and became attached to the *Southern Quarterly Review*. In the course of a year, he was editor-in-chief of this publication, but finding his field too limited, he withdrew to New Orleans in 1845 and established and edited his famous *Review*. His first years in that city are pitiful to relate. His magazine did not meet with the reception he expected, and for fifteen months he and a faithful friend literally lived on bread and water. There were the greatest difficulties in inducing anyone to contribute, and many a morning dawn found the two hard at work, determined not to see their efforts fail. Finally a fairy god-mother, in the shape of a wealthy Louisiana planter, took an interest in the experiment and soon the magazine was on a firm foundation. As time went on, affairs became in a much better condition, the result of which was that the *Commercial Review* was moved from its dungeon-like hole in the Exchange Alley to better quarters, and that Mr. De Bow and his companion thereafter had claret and roast beef for dinner. In the interim, the influence of the Review was becoming greater and greater, when, by an essay on "California

and Oregon," De Bow was brought into prominence. Indeed tl article was quoted in a debate in the French Chamber of Dep ties, and following which, De Bow was appointed Professor Political Economy and of Commerce in the University of Louis ana. He was also well known as the leading statistician of tl country, and during 1850-53 he had charge of the Census B reau of the State, and under Pierce's administration held tl office of Superintendent of the United States Census. Two his best known works are *The Southern States: their Agricultur Commerce, etc.*, (1856), and *Mortality Statistics.* He was throug out life self-denying, almost to an extreme. It was on a missi to his dying brother that, forgetful of his own health, he caug a severe cold through exposure and died at Elizabeth, N. J shortly after reaching his brother's side.

De Bow is known to-day, among a number of people, as havi been a great "crank." As regards his future position in histor that can only be a matter of individual speculation. No hist rian, however, in writitg on the times before and after the Wa can fail to make extended notice of De Bow and the *Commerci Review*. Indeed, he was as instrumental in bringng about sece sion as anything could have been. It was with the firmest co viction, nevertheless, that he was fighting in a just and righteo cause, and he fought with all his strength. He was a man who watchword was "forward, ever forward," and somewhat Purita in character. He was a rather tall man, with a great shock hair somewhat on the order of Andrew Jackson's, althoug black; his features and beard resembled very much those Abraham Lincoln. We can read in every line of his face a ta of long labor, but it was the expression of labor as a pleasur Before the War, and after the death of Calhoun, he was general known as the most universally hated man in the North. On o occasion, while travelling through New England, he stopped at tavern, and on giving his name and re idence he was turned o into the cold and forced to seek shelter elsewhere.

De Bow's *Commercial Review* was published monthly a was in truth a "practical" Review. It seemed to satisfy the d mands of the people and prospered accordingly. It was fi published from January 1846 until July 1847, reappearing

lished. The article closes with the admonition not to neglect the opportunity thrown open to us. That "the commerce of the East Indies has for ages been a glittering object in the eyes of trading nations. They have sought it and grown up to power and influence under its support. What, for instance, were the Italian republics until the boundless products of the East were thrown into their laps? Britain, too, what has been her advance since she has enjoyed an almost monopoly of this invaluable trade? If possessions on the Pacific Ocean will facilitate such a commerce, if they be necessary to its existence, then surely we will not be neglectful of these possessions. There are various ways in which they might be valuable. Let an overland communication from ocean to ocean be established, and the Pacific Coast will be of inestimable importance. Such a communication would give us a monopoly of the trade of the Pacific, and bring to us its untold wealth."

Another interesting essay is one on "The Mississippi," written from a historical point of view. The value of that great waterway was appreciated in those days as at present, and the part it would play in the future was looked forward to with interest. The story of La Salle's discovery and exploration of the river is graphically told and closes with the following sentiment: "Thus perished," says he, "our wise conductor; constant in adversities, intrepid, generous, engaging, adroit, skilful, and capable of anything. He who, during a period of twenty years, had softened the fierce temper of a vast number of savage nations, was massacred by his own people whom he had loaded with benefits. He died in the vigor of life, in the midst of his career and his labors, without the consolation of having seen their result."

The sentiment throughout the Southern States against the abolition of slavery was naturally very strong, and we can find no louder denunciation of it than in the old numbers of the De Bow Review. Many writers, it is true, were almost insane on the subject, declaring that slavery was sanctioned in the very Bible itself, and that the condition of the negro could only be that of a slave. The majority of the opinion, however, were coolly speculative and showed a grasp of the situation. The following by De Bow in an essay on "Southern Wealth and Northern Profits,"

gives very nearly the trend of the greater number of the arguments: "The welfare of this Union, the existence of the American nation, and the industry of Western Europe are dependent upon the apprenticeship of the black race to useful industry. They are working out, by an indispensible servitude, their passage from a brute condition to a semblance of manhood. The Deity has manifestly appointed the white race to drag forth through the operation of servitude, those black savages from their cannibal lair in the African wilds into the light of the Gospel and the knowledge of the true God."

. "By the same operation modern civilization, which takes date from the origin of the slave trade, has reached its present development. This glorious progress is sought to be arrested by clerical agitators, unprincipled office-seekers and corrupt fabricators of slanders upon sister States. These despise the best gifts of the Almighty, and reject His organization of creation; and seeking fellowship with an inferior race, strive to plunge back into that slough of barbarism whence it has required three centuries to escape."

The discussions and opinions on that important subject, secession, and the anticipation of the result of war between the States, put us in mind of discussions in the *North American Review* of to-day on the Phillipine question. Some of the prophecies and reasons why the South would win almost cause us to smile. There were many, moreover, who were in favor of a compromise or anything but Civil War. The following suggests a method of procedure:

"There are two modes by which the necessity for disunion might be avoided, one of which is by amendment of the Constitution, and the adoption of Mr. Calhoun's plan of a dual executive, giving one to the North and the other to the South, with the absolute veto power, at least, upon all questions affecting the domestic institutions of the States. The idea of double executive is not so impracticable as it may seem to many at first view. The Roman consuls and Spartan kings are examples of the incorporation of this peculiar feature into political constitutions, and whatever may have been the inherent weaknesses or defects of these constitutions, they arose from other causes. The Germanic

Confederation, in modern times, furnishes apt example of the wisdom, under certain circumstances, of a plural executive."

De Bow's *Review* truly represented the South before the War, the Old South, with its hopes, its ambitions, and its customs. Its defence of slavery and of other customs, by force of habit made essential to Southern life, is only natural, just as it did represent the Southern people and the traditions dear to them. We are of the New South now, and a part of the Union, and represent the Union.

A new generation has sprung up, who will cease to be set aside by section, but will henceforth be a part of a great and glorious Union. It has been the custom in referring to the South, to speak of "Unc' Edinburg's Drownin," the old "Virginny Mammy" and the like. All that is past now. The questions of slavery and secession have been settled once for all. The Southern States of to-day, however, still have embodied in them their old time strength and their characteristic charms, that will in time be a means of raising the Union to a still higher plane. Just as the *Commercial Review* stood for the South before the war, so should we have to day an organ to voice the demands of our local interests and, more important yet, the whole nation. Established here in the great emporium at the mouth of the Mississippi, a great magazine could not but flourish, and may we of our generation live to see the time when such will come to pass.

H. P. DART, JR.

[NOTE:—I desire to express my gratitude to Mr. Wm. Beer of the Howard Library, for the use of much valuable material and information.—H. P. D.]

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